

The Nation

VOL. XXXVIII.—NO. 971.

THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 7, 1884.

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A NEW ENGLISH DICTIONARY ON HISTORICAL PRINCIPLES.

Founded mainly on the Materials collected by The Philological Society

EDITED BY

JAMES A. H. MURRAY, LL.D.,

President of the Philological Society, with the assistance of many Scholars and Men of Science. Part I. A-ANT. 4to, paper. \$3.25.

OXFORD: At the Clarendon Press.

NEW YORK: Macmillan & Co.

The Publication of this Part will place in the hands of persons interested in the English language and English literature the first instalment of a work which has been in preparation for more than a quarter of a century. The *History* of its origin and progress has been told at length in many literary journals and magazines; here it must suffice to say that the scheme originated in a resolution of the PHILOLOGICAL SOCIETY, passed in 1857, at the suggestion of the present ARCHBISHOP OF DUBLIN (DR. TRENCH). It was thought that the time had arrived when materials should be collected for a new and more complete English Dictionary, which, in fulness of detail, and for critical accuracy, might bear a comparison with the *Wörterbuch* of JACOB and WILHELM GRIMM, commenced a few years before that date, and still in progress. It was therefore determined to begin at the beginning, and extract anew typical quotations from all the great English writers; from all the chief writers on special subjects; from all writers before the 16th century; and from as many as possible of the more important writers of later times. About five hundred readers entered on the task of selecting and transcribing these quotations; and many eminent scholars undertook to arrange the materials so gathered.

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The Nation.

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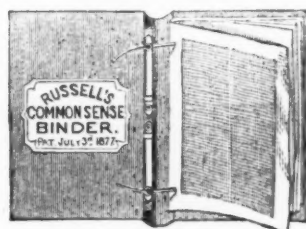
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| | |
|--|----------------|
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| Premiums on Policies not marked off 1st January, 1883..... | 1,339,232 53 |
| Total Marine Premiums..... | \$5,708,185 63 |

| | |
|---|----------------|
| Premiums marked off from 1st January, 1883, to 31st December, 1883..... | \$4,260,428 93 |
| Losses paid during the same period..... | \$1,001,042 88 |

| | |
|---------------------------------------|--------------|
| Returns of Premiums and Expenses..... | \$850,080 70 |
|---------------------------------------|--------------|

The Company has the following Assets, viz.:

| | |
|--|-----------------|
| United States and State of New York Stock, City, Bank, and other Stocks..... | \$8,000,795 00 |
| Loans, secured by Stocks and otherwise..... | 1,356,500 00 |
| Real Estate and Claims due the Company, estimated at..... | 425,000 00 |
| Premium Notes and Bills Receivable..... | 1,888,300 79 |
| Cash in Bank..... | 335,710 68 |
| Amount..... | \$12,972,312 47 |

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 7, 1884.

The Week.

SENATOR SHERMAN's latest banking bill is a trifle too obscure for popular understanding. It provides that upon a deposit of bonds any national banking association shall be entitled to receive circulating notes equal in amount to the par value of their bonds bearing interest at the rate of not less than 3 per cent., and redeemable at the pleasure of the United States at the date of such deposit; and if the bonds deposited are not so redeemable, and bear a rate of interest higher than 3 per cent., then the issue of circulating notes may be to an amount equal to 95 per cent. of the par value of such bonds and of the interest that shall accrue on such bonds before they become redeemable, in excess of the interest thereon computed at the rate of 3 per cent. per annum. "And at no time shall the total amount of such notes issued to any association exceed the amount at such time actually paid in of its capital stock, nor the ratio of such bonds and interest above stated, computed on the first day of January of each year." We suppose that this means that circulation may be issued on the 3 per cents at the rate of one hundred cents for each dollar of bonds, and upon the 4 per cents (redeemable in 1904) at the rate of one hundred and fifteen cents for each dollar—i. e., ninety-five cents for the face of the bond and twenty cents for the excess of interest to accrue for twenty years over and above 3 per cent. per annum. This excess, however, is to be computed every year. Consequently the margin of circulation will decrease one cent on the dollar each year. It strikes us that it is quite as important to pass a bill that people can readily comprehend as it is to pass one that the banks can live under and subsist on.

That versatile and somewhat ubiquitous person, Mr. James McHenry, has been getting up a more dreadful exposure of what are called American "railroad methods" than any that has yet appeared. He made his very extraordinary discovery through his having been compelled by "recent events" to "look narrowly into the cause of the disasters to American railroads." What he has discovered is that about half the Western produce exported from Eastern ports is carried here fraudulently—that is, without paying anything to the railroads. Moreover, numerous trains, known, it appears, as "ghost trains," of which nothing is heard at the head offices of the companies, come from the West to the East. In fact, he says that only about one-tenth of the earnings of the roads reach the companies' treasuries. Nobody but Mr. McHenry, we venture to say, ever dreamed of the frauds reaching such a high figure. But Commissioner Fink, who is much better informed about American railroads than Mr. McHenry, says these fraud estimates are far too high; for, says he, the acknowledged railroad receipts last year were \$700,-

000,000. If this was, however, only one-tenth of the actual receipts, the total must have been \$7,000,000,000, which is the actual cost of building all the railroads in the United States. So that, if Mr. McHenry's story were true, it would show that the railroads earned their cost in one year, and lost \$6,300,000,000 by theft, without its attracting any attention. Mr. McHenry has evidently been looking too "narrowly" into the causes of American railroad disasters, or has delivered himself into the hands of some egregious impostor, or has himself been romancing a little. We fear the public does not greatly care which hypothesis is the correct one.

The most important bill for the regulation of inter-State commerce now before Congress is that of Mr. Reagan, of Texas. Mr. Reagan is a lawyer, and, we believe, an ex-Judge, so that it is not unfair to express the hope that if he reports his bill, he will fully explain in some detail to Congress and the country how he expects it to work. It contains some curious provisions. For instance, it is made unlawful for any carrier "directly or indirectly to charge to or receive from any person or persons any greater or less rate or amount of freight, compensation or reward than is charged to or received from any other person or persons for like and contemporaneous service in the carrying, receiving, delivering, storing or handling of the same." Any violation of the act makes a carrier liable to a suit for damages, to an amount treble the loss sustained, and a fine of a thousand dollars. It may be, for all we know, a very wicked thing for a railroad to charge one person more or even less than it charges another for a "like and contemporaneous" service; but what is a like and contemporaneous service? Apparently this precludes a railroad from lowering its rates in order to attract business from any particular quarter, a form of crime which is no doubt very common among the more reckless railroads in a new State like Texas.

Another species of villany very rife in some parts of the country is reached by the following section:

"SEC. 3. That it shall be unlawful for any person or persons engaged in the carriage, receiving, storage, or handling of property as mentioned in the first section of this act to enter into any combination, contract, or agreement, by changes of schedule, carriage in different cars, or by any other means, with intent to prevent the carriage of such property from being continuous from the place of shipment to the place of destination, whether carried on one or several railroads. And it shall be unlawful for any person or persons carrying property as aforesaid to enter into any contract, agreement, or combination for the pooling of freights, or to pool the freights, of different and competing railroads, by dividing between them the aggregate or net proceeds of the earnings of such railroads, or any portion of them."

The knowledge that the railroads not only "pool" freight, but do all in their power to prevent the carriage of property from being "con-

tinuous," has been thus far kept from the public; but it had to come out sooner or later, and Judge Reagan evidently means to show them that, the facts once known, no trifling will be allowed. He ought to be intrusted with all legal proceedings arising under the act.

The bill introduced into Congress last Monday by Mr. Hewitt, authorizing newspapers to copyright their titles, seems objectionable, chiefly on the ground that the copyright clause in the Constitution was not intended to apply to such a case. Congress is authorized to secure to "authors" the exclusive right to their "writings" for a limited time. (Constitution U. S., Article I, sec. 8.) It seems going very far to call the selection of a newspaper title a work of authorship, or the person who selects it an "author." It is, properly speaking, a trade-mark, and as such, it is, we suppose, already protected.

The Fitz-John Porter Bill has passed the House by a considerable majority, after much good speaking, the last speech of note being one by Mr. Phelps, of New Jersey, who produced a letter of President Garfield's to General Porter, expressing himself favorably to the appointment of a board to review the proceedings of the original court-martial. One of the good results of the work of the Advisory Board which President Hayes appointed, is that it sifted the charges against Porter down to two points which the general public could understand and form a judgment about—namely, the slowness of the night march, and the failure to "go in there," on the 28th of July. Before this Board did its work the accusation against Porter bore in the public mind the aspect of a generally treasonable line of conduct, extending over many weeks, and coloring all his acts, and, according to one accuser, showing itself markedly in his countenance. The Advisory Board swept all this away, and brought us down to the only two facts of any importance, and on them threw a flood of light, through new evidence. Since its finding it is safe to say that no one who has examined the case, apart from strong political prepossessions, has failed to see in Porter a greatly injured man. Those who still resist his vindication, of whom General Logan is the chief, are men in whom the political traditions of the war are too strong to be shaken, and who in fact make it a rule to examine all questions arising out of the war under the influence of these traditions. To them Porter was, and must always remain, a traitor, because he was at a critical period dissatisfied with a change of command which good men and women at the North at that day received joyfully as a sign that the war had at last had sincerity and vigor infused into it.

It is reported that among the amendments to the Lowell Bankruptcy Bill suggested by the Convention recently held in Washington,

is one making dealings in "futures" on the part of the bankrupt a ground for objecting to his discharge. This, of course, must be based upon the idea that it is wrong to deal in "futures," but it is hard to see any reason for making a discrimination between this and other kinds of speculation. If the Bankruptcy Bill is to be used as an engine of general moral and commercial reform, then no one who speculates at all ought to be discharged; but why are dealers in "futures" any worse than the rest? The true test is not speculation, but fraud. If a trader conducts his business in such a way that he uses his credit to keep up a fictitious appearance of solvency after he is really bankrupt, he is a cheat and swindler, whether he is speculating in coffee or conducting an apparently conservative banker's business. Of course, dealing in futures under such circumstances would be very wrong, not because they are futures, but because the man, to save himself, is taking risks which will probably involve in ruin or serious loss numbers of innocent people who trust him.

The *Atlanta Constitution* maintains that Mr. Benjamin's denial of the authenticity of the Thurlow Weed Barnes letter "will amount to nothing as far as Republican editors are concerned." We doubt if there was any Republican editor who needed any such denial to convince him that either Mr. Thurlow Weed or Mr. Thurlow Weed Barnes had fallen a victim to a curious delusion. We do not for our part believe that anybody tried to impose on either of them about the letter, or that the writer of it ever thought of anybody supposing that it was written by Senator Benjamin. He was probably some poor devil of a Southerner stranded in New York, who wanted free transportation to Washington, and who signed it "Benjamin," because that was his first name, or because it was the first name that occurred to him. We believe, moreover, that this name "Benjamin" is the only reason which has ever existed for supposing that Mr. Judah P. Benjamin wrote the letter. As a mark of authenticity, it is about as valuable as the name "George" attached to a begging letter declaring the writer a high tariff man, would be in showing that Senator Hoar had secretly come to New York for a spree, had lost his money and was ashamed to borrow of his friends.

Mr. Blaine's "retirement" continues to be disturbed in various annoying ways. Only a few days ago his publishers were compelled to come out in a card denying a malicious rumor that they were in trouble through his failure to supply "copy" fast enough. The rumor was especially atrocious because everybody has had a chance to know, by means of regular weekly statements since the "work" was begun, that Mr. Blaine was reeling off copy at the rate of some thousand pages a month, and that he devoted no less than five hours a day to steady composition. His publishers say that he not only keeps the copy pouring in upon them in an unbroken stream, but that he is

writing in a "thoroughly conscientious spirit," and that those who have read the advance sheets are charmed with its "style" and "fairness to both sides." The name of the book is incidentally given, and also the fact that more "steel portraits" will be added than was first intended. The card containing all this valuable information was published on Sunday. Now comes a statement from Pennsylvania that some meddlesomely active journalist there has taken a "poll" of an entire county of the State on the question of Republican Presidential candidates, with the following result: Blaine, 66; Arthur, 1; Lincoln, 1; Beaver, 1; Edmunds, 1. This will require another card containing a positive statement that Mr. Blaine cannot consent to be a candidate. How can a man keep himself in a proper frame of mind for historical composition with perpetual interruptions of this kind to distract him?

The *Christian at Work* is apparently not ashamed of its recent escapade, and returns to its defence of precautionary homicide with an increase of absurdity. What it says now is:

"If our 'preaching' does 'not provide any tribunal to decide' such cases, it is because such tribunals already exist in the established courts of the State—such a court as tried Nutt. The *Christian at Work* not only does not propose that there should be no trial in such cases—it believes that every man killing another should be tried just as Nutt was tried; so that the assertion of the *Nation* that our theory of the justification of a homicide like that of Nutt makes the slayer 'both prosecutor, judge, jury, and executioner,' is conspicuously inexact, and 'falls to the ground by its own gravity.'"

The writer of this extraordinary passage actually forgets the murdered man, and thinks his friends have no right to complain if only the self-constituted prosecutor, judge, jury, and executioner is, after murdering him, made to undergo even a mock trial, like Nutt's. Suppose, however, the jury had found Nutt's act unjustifiable, would this have given Dukes his life again? And if Billy McGlory should kill the editor of the *Christian at Work*, under a misapprehension as to his rights or wrongs, would complete amends be made to society if Billy were afterward tried, and it were shown that when he did the killing he really believed that the editor had done him a great wrong, for which the law furnished no remedy? Suppose it turned out that Billy had been mistaken, would this give the editor back to his work? We think, for our part, that a *Christian at Work* who does not see that if we allow any man to take human life with impunity, on any pretext, in his own quarrel, we open the door to the slaughter of innocent men, and help to bring all criminal justice into contempt, ought to take a vacation—and the longer the better.

Notwithstanding the long period of liquidation and declining prices—nearly two years now—the future course of prices and general state of finance is involved in more than the usual degree of obscurity. Until very recently it has been generally believed that when commodities "touched bottom"

they would from that point begin to advance. But the experience with all the articles made from the two great commodities of iron and cotton has not borne out this expectation. The recent reduction of wages by the Fall River cotton manufacturers, and various other incidents, show that the producers and middlemen in all the lines of traffic in cotton goods have adopted the low prices as comparatively permanent. The same is true of the iron trade; there has been no reaction from the extreme depression, nor does the present aspect of trade promise any advance, or any increase of demand, even at the low prices, for any of the great variety of articles manufactured from cotton and iron. We have a large surplus of breadstuffs in the United States—more wheat, it is believed, than at this time last year—and notwithstanding that prices are below the average of the last fifteen years, there is but little demand in foreign markets for our surplus; consequently our exports are falling off as compared with this time last year, and the entire volume of our foreign trade, both in exports and imports, is very much less than it was then. The general drift of our foreign trade is indicated by the fact that foreign exchange has advanced gradually ever since the beginning of the year, until it is now so near the specie-exporting point that an outward movement of gold may begin any day. The dullness of trade throughout the country is of course an index of a decrease of enterprises of every kind, and this in turn is the reason of the excessive supply of idle money in the banks and the abnormally low rates of interest which have now prevailed for a longer time than ever before known in this country.

Mr. John Bright has been bitterly denouncing Mr. Henry George's land scheme on account of its confiscation feature, and remarked, aptly enough, that although it was an American invention there was no sign of its being tried on this side of the water. We called attention to the confiscation feature in these columns two years ago as insuring the condemnation and failure of the whole plan. The curious state of mind into which neophytes sometimes get was illustrated by the fact that this brought us some abusive letters from the Georgites, charging that we had never read 'Progress and Poverty,' or we would not assert that Mr. George proposed to take people's land without compensation. But he does propose it, and in a form which would make it the most heartless as well as the most extensive piece of robbery ever set on foot, for he proposes to rob not only the great landlord, but the poor laborer who had put his money into a house or a farm. We suggested at that time, and suggest now again, that the disciples should be required, as the early Christians were, to show their faith by their works, and that every one embracing the new gospel should be required to present a piece of land to the State. At present we notice, with shame, that it is always other people's real estate which the orators propose should be "resumed" by the Government.

Mr. Matthew Arnold has been asked in St. Louis to give his "general impression of

America," an inquiry regularly put to all distinguished travellers who visit the United States, but, as experience shows, very difficult to answer satisfactorily. The answer which the inquirer desires, and feels to be only fair and proper, is that the reality far exceeds the traveller's highest anticipations. That being once said, the ground is cleared for any friendly criticism that may occur to the visitor—as that life and property seem strangely unsafe here, or that it is singular how low the tone of our political life is, etc., etc. But Mr. Arnold, instead of pursuing this safe course, seems to have assumed that the interviewer wanted him to criticise what he had seen, and he accordingly replied that he noticed that at the railway stations people had to "help themselves," instead of having their comfort looked out for by guards and porters. This unfortunate remark he followed up by a reference to the *London Times*, showing that he understands very little the view generally taken of that newspaper by most Americans, and the interviewer mentions that he "sighed," explaining the sigh as coming from the remembrance of the pleasure he got at home from the daily perusal of that dastardly sheet. The interview adds little to our knowledge of Mr. Arnold or his impressions; but, as is so often the case, shows the interviewer to be a most intelligent and discriminating critic, with a dash of racy humor which Mr. Arnold sadly lacks, and consequently failed to appreciate.

The friends of woman suffrage in England are making a vigorous push to have the change embodied in the coming bill extending the franchise to county householders. Mrs. Fawcett, who has always been one of its vigorous advocates, writes cheerfully about its prospects to the *Pall Mall Gazette*. She uses all the well-known arguments in its favor, but her reasons for thinking she is going to get it are perhaps more interesting than her reasons for thinking that she ought to get it. One is, that at a great reform meeting in the Newcastle Town Moor last autumn, "all allusions to the desirability of removing the political disabilities of women were received with cheers and general approval." Another is, that the Liberal associations of Manchester, Leeds, Birmingham, Edinburgh, and Huddersfield have adopted resolutions "embodying the principle of women's suffrage." The third and last is, that the Liberal members in the present House of Commons are in favor of it by 120 to 76, whereas the Tories are opposed to it by 99 to 29. The Tories, however, have to be counted, unfortunately, on this as on other matters, and, when the Liberals are divided about anything, are very strong.

Mr. Gladstone has been receiving delegations from the late Liberal Conference at Leeds and also from the Trades Unions, seeking to stimulate him in his policy about the extension of the suffrage. The intentions of the Government are very well known as regards the measures it is to introduce. Whatever doubt exists is about the order in which they are to be introduced, and their de-

pendence on each other. There is no doubt, for instance, that Mr. Gladstone will introduce a bill assimilating the county and borough franchises, but there is some doubt as to whether this will be accompanied or only followed by a redistribution of seats, or rather a rearrangement of constituencies. The Tories insist on having both measures together, and so do some Liberals. But the regular old orthodox Liberals wish to leave the order to Mr. Gladstone's discretion. They take similar ground with regard to the bill making London a municipality, which will be one of the most serious tasks he has ever undertaken.

There are all the signs in England of a stormy session of Parliament. The Parnellites have held their usual conference and show but little disposition to confine themselves, as their enemies in England always hope they will, to agitating for secession. They declare their intention of opposing the London Municipality Bill unless they can get a similar bill for Dublin, and are going to bring in a shower of bills of their own amending existing legislation about county government, the municipal franchise, the fisheries, the poor laws, and the national schools. These will of course not be passed, but they will obstruct English business, and are probably intended simply or mainly to meet the taunt that the Home Rulers make no practical demands, and produce no practical scheme of Irish reform of their own. The present tactics will undoubtedly be more difficult to deal with than those of last year.

A Cairo despatch to London states that the Khedive has received a telegram from Baker Pasha announcing his defeat near Tokar. His losses were 2,000 men, four Krupp cannon, and two Gatling guns. The disaster was expected, as Baker Pasha's force consisted of raw troops, poorly armed. The Egyptians are said to have "bolted." Whatever effect this defeat may have upon the ultimate solution of the Egyptian question, recent despatches must convince any fair-minded strategist that all attempts to meet the False Prophet with Egyptian troops formed in a "hollow square" ought to be abandoned. The effect of the attempt in this case is described as follows in one of the despatches: "Only three sides of a square were formed owing to the fact that two companies of the Egyptian troops stood still, being overcome with fright. The enemy poured into this gap, when the Egyptians threw away their rifles and flung themselves upon the ground screaming for mercy. The troops on one side of the square killed many of their own men by wild firing." A square with only three sides, with a gap presented to welcome the enemy, and with the troops on one side firing into the troops on the other, is probably the kind of square the Prophet likes best to meet. It is more common in cable despatches than in actual warfare.

The death of M. Rouher removes the last of the really prominent figures of the Third Empire. There is nobody left now who really

stood by the throne of the last Napoleon and answered for him. Rouher in his later years was known as the "Vice-Emperor," so faithfully and fully did he represent his master's sentiments. His value lay mainly in his power and brass as a debater, which became very important after 1866, when the Corps Legislatif began to get from under control, and large Liberal majorities began to come in at every election. His opinions were worth but little, and his advice was always wrong. But he figured prominently in some historic scenes. It was he who undertook to reply to M. Thiers's famous epigram, "You have not left yourselves another blunder to commit." It was he, too, who, when the terrible news of the formation of the new German Bund in 1866 came out, in 1867, threw Italy into the German alliance, by almost shouting in the Senate, that "never should she go to Rome—never." He made one more dramatic appearance in the new Chamber after the fall of the Empire, when he was baited mercilessly by the Duke d'Audiffret-Pasquier, in the presence of a crowded house, some of whom would have liked to assault him, and had almost to cry for mercy in his humiliation. He was the last of a tribe who brought almost indelible disgrace, not simply on French politics but on the French character.

The Nihilistic panic in Vienna continues, and is said to pervade all classes of the community. That something in the nature of an insurrectionary outbreak is feared seems to be inferable from the troops having been kept under arms in their barracks through the night. Anything of this kind is, however, very unlikely. The last thing the Anarchists in any country like to do is to show their actual numerical strength by an armed rising. They have hit upon a plan which answers their purpose far better than any open revolt, and that is the spreading of alarm by assassinations and explosions. This is a new but most effective weapon. It has succeeded wonderfully in Russia, measurably in England, and is succeeding now wonderfully in Austria. The great size of modern cities, the quickness of communication, and the greatly increased portability of explosives have placed it in the power of a very small number of men to fill the official and wealthy class in almost any community with terror. But predictions, such as those with which Mr. Henry George is now trying to revive his "boom" in England, of an internecine conflict between classes, like the Thirty Years' War in Germany, may be fairly set down as cheap rhetorical devices. The dangerous anarchical class in every civilized state is very small. The vast majority of the population are people who are industrious and own property, and will fight fiercely for peace and order if necessary. The only way in which the Anarchists can attain even a shadow of success is by lying hid and producing vague terror. If they were ever to show themselves in force anywhere, there would be no thirty years' war with them. Thirty hours would settle their grievances, and the settlement for most of them would be final and complete.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, JANUARY 30, TO TUESDAY, FEBRUARY 5, 1884, INCLUSIVE.]

DOMESTIC.

SECRETARY FRELINGHUYSEN has addressed to the President a communication to be transmitted to the House of Representatives in accordance with the recent resolutions asking for information on the subject of pork prohibition. After reviewing the history of legislation against American pork, Secretary Frelinghuysen calls attention to the constitution of a pork commission by the President, and, in view of the prominent part this commission must play in any intelligent discussion of the question, recommends the President to advise Congress to abstain from any immediate legislative action until the report of the commission shall be before it. He adds that if in the face of clear proofs that our meats are free from disease, any nations with which we are on terms of intimacy should discriminate against us, it would then be the province of the Executive to call the attention of such nations to the provisions of treaties, with the confident expectations that those treaties would be respected.

Secretary Folger has written to the Supervising Inspector-General of Steam Vessels in regard to the application of Mrs. Miller, of New Orleans, for a license as the master of a steamboat plying on the Ouachita River: "I see no reason in unwritten or in written law why Mistress Miller may not lawfully demand an examination, and, if she prove herself duly qualified, have a license to serve as a master of a steam vessel."

In the House of Representatives on Thursday a bill was passed declaring forfeited a number of railroad land grants to Mississippi, Alabama, Louisiana, and other States. By a vote of 184 to 78 the House of Representatives on Friday passed the bill restoring Fitz-John Porter to the army, and directing the President to place him upon the retired list.

Mr. Morrison on Monday introduced his Tariff Bill in the House of Representatives. In general terms it proposes an average reduction of 20 per cent. from the existing tariff throughout the list; but there will be so many exceptions, both as to schedules and articles in the schedules, that the average reduction of the whole bill will not be more than 16 or 17 per cent. Mr. Morrison and his school claim that the actual reduction in the revision of last winter does not exceed 5 per cent., so that the reduction of last winter, taken with the reduction which will be proposed by the Morrison bill, will not exceed 22 per cent., which is a smaller reduction than the Tariff Commission pretend that their bill proposed. An extensive addition to the free list is also made.

Mr. Morrison says that he does not expect that Mr. Randall will resort to anything but open warfare to defeat his bill, or that Mr. Hewitt will introduce a separate measure. Mr. Randall for himself has said that he has no intention of withholding appropriation bills, as has been reported, in order to defeat tariff legislation.

A bill introduced in Congress by Mr. Eaton (Dem., Ct.) on Monday provides that any Federal officer who shall knowingly permit any of his subordinates to be assessed or called upon to contribute money for elections shall be guilty of felony, and on conviction shall be imprisoned two or five years. Any official contributing money shall be liable to indictment and subject to fine or imprisonment at the discretion of the Court, and any citizen knowingly soliciting from any officer or employee of the Government shall be guilty of a misdemeanor.

A bill was introduced in the House on Monday to amend the Constitution. It provides for the election of a President and three Vice-Presidents, each

chosen for the same number of years. The First Vice-President shall be President of the Senate, and the Second or Third Vice-President shall occupy that position in case of the removal from office of the President of the United States.

Senator Logan has reported to the Senate the Cox bill to repeal the test oath with important modifications. It repeals the test oath, but it places the continuing stigma of treason upon the graduates of West Point and of the Naval Academy who joined the rebellion, and it makes it impossible for a disloyal man to recover war claims.

President Arthur gave his first state dinner for this season on Wednesday evening, to the members of the Cabinet, the General of the Army, a number of Senators and their wives.

Second-Assistant Postmaster-General Elmer resigned on Monday, and Chief Contract Clerk Henry D. Lyman was nominated as his successor. This is in accordance with civil service reform principles. Mr. Elmer has accepted the Presidency of a New York financial company.

The decrease of the public debt during January was \$11,958,004.

A warm debate took place in the Assembly at Albany on Wednesday, when the bill to regulate the hours of service on street cars was under consideration in the Committee of the Whole. The best men in the Legislature participated. The bill was ordered to a third reading by a vote of 89 to 27. It provides that no horse-railroad company shall exact more than twelve hours for a day's work from its employees. It is opposed on the ground that it is an interference with personal rights.

In the Assembly, on Friday, Mr. Locke, of Rensselaer, introduced a bill similar to the Scott Liquor Law of Ohio, with some modifications. It provides that upon each dealer in intoxicating liquors there shall be a yearly assessment of \$300 for spirituous and \$150 for malt liquors.

The Roosevelt Bill, taking from the Aldermen of this city the power of confirmation, was ordered to a third reading in the Assembly on Tuesday afternoon by a vote of 61 to 38.

The New York Civil-Service Commission has sent its report to the Assembly with a message from the Governor approving suggestions that the law be made to apply more strictly to cities.

Statistics compiled by the Secretary of New York State show that the total number of paupers relieved and supported during 1883 was 135,154, and the expenses of the poor-houses, \$2,112,792. In administering temporary relief, \$640,382 were spent. Of the total expenses New York city shows \$1,070,320, and Kings County, \$286,811.

Elisha Harris, M.D., Secretary of the New York State Board of Health, died in Albany on Thursday. Dr. Harris was regarded as a high authority on the subject of vital statistics, and in relation to sanitary matters generally.

The Texas House of Representatives has passed a bill imposing a penalty of from one to five years' imprisonment for fence cutting, but allowing any one who has been completely cut off by surrounding fences to open a passageway.

The jury in the Feuardent-Cesnola suit gave a verdict late on Saturday afternoon. They found for the defendant on the first and third counts and on the second count ten stood for the defendant and two for the plaintiff. Of the five counts, on each of which Mr. Feuardent claimed \$5,000 damages, only three were submitted to the jury. The libel alleged in the first was that in his first published answer to Mr. Feuardent's criticisms on the Cypriote statues, Gene-

ral di Cesnola said that the charges were maliciously made, and absolutely without foundation in fact; in the second count, that in a letter to the trustees of the Metropolitan Museum General di Cesnola said that the firm of Rollin & Feuardent had not made an honest effort to sell the collection, and had overcharged him for expenses. The third count was based on General di Cesnola's letter, published in various newspapers, intimating that Mr. Feuardent was a charlatan, ignorant of archaeology, and either thoroughly dishonest or thoroughly ignorant and reckless.

The long strike in the glass-works trade, which has lasted for seven months, was settled by the conference at Pittsburgh, Pa., on Wednesday. The strike was against a reduction of from 10 to 20 per cent. in wages. The basis of the settlement is immediate resumption at last year's wages, which will be paid until April 1, after which, until July 1, the wages will be governed by a sliding scale based upon the price of glass.

A strike of the spinners at ten Fall River, Mass., mills was begun on Monday.

Rowell, the murderer of Lynch, who seduced his wife, was acquitted at Batavia, N. Y., on Thursday, on the ground of self-defence. His attorneys had urged the plea of insanity. Rowell was given a popular reception.

Eleven colleges were represented by thirty-one delegates at the second annual conference of the College Young Men's Christian Association held at Amherst, Mass., during the week.

Wendell Phillips died at his residence in Boston on Saturday at 6:15 P. M., after an illness of about one week. His disease was angina pectoris. He was born November 29, 1811. His invalid wife survives him. The funeral services will be held on Wednesday. The Rev. Samuel Longfellow will deliver an address.

Catherine Morgan Dix, widow of General John A. Dix, died in this city on Sunday at the age of seventy-seven.

President H. E. Packer, of the Lehigh Valley Railroad, died at Mauch Chunk, Pa., on Friday, at the age of about thirty.

FOREIGN.

It was reported from Egypt on Wednesday that Baker Pasha, with 1,600 troops, had landed at Trinkitat on the previous Monday, and an additional body of 2,000 men landed on Tuesday, completing the force for the relief of Tokar. Nearly 20,000 rebels are between Trinkitat and Tokar. Baker Pasha recently made a cavalry reconnaissance, and attacked Osman Digna, killing and wounding more than 120 of his men.

The commander at Tokar, in a letter published on Friday, said: "It would be impossible for our condition to be worse. The rebels have filled up all the wells outside the town. The water inside is brackish and bad, and the troops are suffering from diarrhoea. There is great fear that it will be necessary soon to surrender. The firing on the part of the rebels continues day and night."

A spy captured near Trinkitat on Friday reported that there were 7,000 rebels five miles distant. Baker Pasha sent letters promising full pardon to rebels who submit to him.

The enemy has made an unsuccessful attack upon the fortified camp of the Egyptians at Suakim. Baker Pasha's advance on Tokar was begun on Sunday. The Turkish Ambassador to Great Britain has informed Earl Granville that the Porte is preparing a note to the Powers insisting upon the retention of the Sudan as an integral part of Egypt under the Sultan's suzerainty, and requesting that the whole question be referred to a conference of foreign ambassadors at London or Constantinople. Bismarck has advised a postponement of sending the note.

Despatches from Suakim received on Tuesday announced the serious defeat of Baker Pasha on Monday. He was near Tokar when attacked. Of the 3,500 men which he had with him 2,000 were killed and wounded. Four Krupp and two Gatling guns were captured. The Turks and Europeans fought well. With the remnant of his force Baker Pasha succeeded in reaching Trinkitat, where the gunboat *Ranger* is lying. He will proceed to Suakim immediately on the *Ranger*.

General Gordon telegraphs to London that messages have reached him from the Sudan hailing his mission with gladness.

At a great Liberal meeting in Birmingham, Eng., on January 29, Mr. John Bright denounced the virulent and extravagant attacks made by the Conservatives upon the Government during the Parliamentary recess. The Tories, he declared, were still as much opposed to the rights of the people as when they opposed the abolition of the Corn Laws. Mr. Bright entreated the workingmen of England to continue to exclude from power a party which so injured and insulted them, while it continued unchanged and impotent.

Mr. Bright also condemned Henry George's land propositions, saying that they were most extraordinary and impracticable, and the wildest ever imported by an American inventor. Mr. George's scheme began with a hitherto-unheard-of general system of confiscation, which Mr. Bright believed would end in immeasurable evil and confusion. The plan, he said, was simply an insult to the intelligence of the English people. Nevertheless, the system of land tenure must be altered so as to enable the land to come gradually and naturally into the hands of those most requiring it, and desiring it, most able to pay for and be able to work it for the public advantage. Englishmen should try these reforms before attempting wild and extravagant schemes.

An urgent summons was issued on Thursday to the British Conservatives by the "whip" of that party. He says that an amendment relative to the Egyptian policy of the Government would be moved to the address in reply to the Queen's speech, and that an important division would, in all probability, be taken on the 7th of February.

Mr. Bradlaugh made no effort to take the oath on the opening of Parliament, but remained below the bar. On the 11th of February, however, he will advance to the table of the House of Commons in order to take the prescribed oath. Meanwhile Sir Stafford Northcote will make no motion hostile to Mr. Bradlaugh, and will not support any Conservative who does so.

Parliament was opened on Tuesday by Royal Commission. Very few members were present to hear the Queen's speech read. It announced the continuance of friendly relations with all the foreign Powers and made no statements of particular significance. In regard to Egyptian affairs it says that the order of evacuation was recalled as a precaution against possible effects of the Sudan military reverse in Egypt itself. The aim of the occupation of Egypt remains the same as heretofore. Such counsels have been offered to the Egyptian Government as a prudent regard for its resources and conditions seemed to require. The address in reply was adopted by both houses without amendment. In the House of Commons an amendment was moved and the Government policy was severely criticised by the Conservatives, but the Liberals made no reply, as all members of the Cabinet were absent at a special Council on Egyptian affairs. A vote on the amendment was thus precipitated, and the Conservatives were wholly unprepared. The vote was 77 to 20 against the amendment. The Conservatives complain that they were deceived by the Liberals. They intended to prolong the debate until Friday and then marshal all their forces for a vote.

At the conference of Parnellite members of Parliament in Dublin on Monday, it was decided to oppose the London Municipal Bill, unless a similar bill for Dublin should be introduced. It was decided to introduce bills amending the acts which relate to land and to laborers. These will deal with county government, municipal franchise, fisheries, the reclamation of land, the poor laws, national teachers, and the registration of voters.

A letter from the British Government was officially transmitted to the directors of the Suez Canal Company, at their monthly meeting in Paris, on Tuesday, approving the convention of M. de Lesseps with the British steamship owners. This agreement was made in November, 1883. M. de Lesseps advised its acceptance.

Lord Derby, British Secretary of State for the Colonies, has accepted the modified proposals of the Transvaal delegates regarding the new frontier by which a commission appointed for the purpose is to settle the disputed boundary on the spot.

Marquis of Queensberry, in a pamphlet to Parliament advocating reform in the marriage service, proposes, in order to meet divorce cases, to leave out in the marriage ceremony the words, "Whom God has joined together let no man put asunder," substituting "Whom the Government or nature may put asunder let no man attempt to keep together."

In the debate on the labor question in the French Chamber of Deputies on Thursday M. Ferry said that it did not appertain to the Government to find a solution of the labor problem, but rather to private persons. Real reforms consisted of liberty in individual initiative and foresight. The state ought to aid a private initiative, but not become its substitute. M. Clémenceau, replying, said that crushing taxes and high rents caused the sufferings of the working men. The remedy was an alliance between the working men in all countries, a reduction in freight rates, and the development of public instruction and liberty.

In the French Chamber of Deputies on Saturday, M. Clémenceau's resolution for the appointment of a committee to inquire into the needed reforms of the working classes was adopted by a vote of 254 to 249, notwithstanding the protest of M. Ferry. The Senate, by a vote of 136 to 117, has rejected the clause of the Trades' Syndicate Bill, legalizing federation trades meetings.

There are exciting rumors in Vienna of a plot to assassinate the Emperor of Austria, the Empress, and certain princes, statesmen, and editors who have been condemned to death by the Anarchists. Several bodies of troops are kept under arms in case of emergency.

In spite of numerous arrests, the agrarian agitation still continues in Pskow and Vitebsk, Russia. So intense is the irritation of the peasants in the latter province that the Governor has telegraphed to St. Petersburg asking that the troops specially sent to Vitebsk be withdrawn as a collision is feared.

The Berlin police discovered on Thursday a Socialist plot to rescue the Russo-Polish student, Padlewski, who had been imprisoned there for the past nine months. Two Socialist leaders were placed under arrest.

The Lower House of the Prussian Diet passed on Thursday the estimates for public worship, in spite of the opposition of the Ultramontane party, by a vote of 147 to 100.

The controversy between the Liberal and Conservative press of Berlin regarding the funeral of Herr Lasker has grown in bitterness and intensity. The Conservative papers make violent attacks upon the memory of the dead statesman.

The *Moniteur de Rome* on Saturday said: "Herr von Gossler's recent replies in the Landtag end for the present all hopes of a reconciliation between the Vatican and Prussia. The Catholics of Prussia are full of faith and

ardor, and ready to meet fresh persecution for the honor and liberty of the Church." The Court of Cassation has decided the case of the Government against the Propaganda, that the latter's real property must be converted into Government stock. This decision is a severe blow to the Vatican, which talks of appealing to the Powers.

General Lew Wallace, the American Minister to Turkey, has demanded from the Porte an indemnity of \$10,000 on account of the alleged illegal arrest of Dr. Pflaum, an American, by the Governor of Assos; also an indemnity for the American travellers who were recently attacked by Kurdish brigands in Anatolia.

Two invalid members of Henry M. Stanley's expedition to the Congo River have arrived at Madeira. It is their positive opinion that M. de Brazza, the leader of the French expedition, is dead, as at last accounts he was surrounded by hostile natives.

O'Neill, the African explorer, has arrived at Mozambique, having traversed 1,400 miles of hitherto unexplored territory between Lake Nyanza and that place. He discovered Lake Amuramba, which he declares to be the true source of the Prendera River.

Fears of another revolt in the Spanish army were reported, on Tuesday, in a Berlin despatch.

The new agreement between the Canadian Government and the Canadian Pacific Railroad was presented to the Dominion House of Parliament on Thursday. By it an advance of not more than twenty-two million five hundred thousand dollars is made by the Government at five per cent interest, for which the entire road becomes liable. The three per cent Government guarantee remains as before.

The Winter Carnival was opened auspiciously at Montreal on Monday. The Governor-General arrived in the afternoon and was given an enthusiastic reception. In the evening there was a torch light procession of snow shoe clubs and an illumination of the Ice Palace. Ten thousand visitors had arrived in the city on Monday.

P. W. Thomas, Sons & Co., London stock brokers, failed on Thursday for about \$4,000,000. One member of the firm has absconded.

Eugene Rouher, the French statesman, died in Paris on Sunday, at the age of seventy. He began his public career after the Revolution of 1848, when he was sent to the Constituent Assembly. He became Napoleon's Minister of Justice in 1849. Napoleon appreciated his abilities and frequently recalled him to his Cabinet. In 1860 he concluded a treaty with England on free-trade principles and in the following years concluded equally liberal treaties with other countries. In June, 1863, he became President of the Council of State. For the next five years he shouldered great responsibilities—the Mexican expedition and the Maximilian episode, the relations of France to America during the civil war, and her attitude toward Germany. He opposed the granting of more liberty to the people, and his ministry fell in 1869. He was then made President of the Senate. The Emperor was supported by him in precipitating the Franco-Prussian war. In 1872 he again entered the Chambers as a Bonapartist and advocated the Prince Imperial's cause until his death. He was an efficient supporter of free trade.

The death of the Swedish Bishop Carl Olaf Bjorling was announced on Friday. He was the author of a number of works on theology, history, and philosophy, written in Latin.

The death of the eminent Danish preacher and theologian, Hans Lassen Martensen, was announced on Monday. His most important work is a profound treatise on 'Christian Dogma' (1849).

Josephine Gallmeyer, the well-known German soubrette, died in Vienna on Sunday at the age of forty-five.

THE STATE OF TRADE.

THE situation of trade and industry shows no improvement with the beginning of the new year, nor is there any reason, except in the hopes and imaginations of men, why January, 1884, should be different from December, 1883. It is true that a good deal of money is liberated on the first of January, in the shape of dividends and interest; but unless the conditions of trade invite its investment in productive industry, the effect of dividend and interest payments is as small as the transfer of money by an individual from one pocket to the other. Midwinter is the time of all others when we should least expect a revival of trade, and this has been an unusually close winter. What the approaching spring may have in store for us we must wait to learn.

We have remarked in former articles that the present state of trade and industry bears all the marks of a commercial crisis except one. It was *not* introduced by a money panic. According to the usual conditions of a crisis, we should have had a great stringency in money about the 1st of July, 1881, a run on the banks, a violent collapse of credit, a sudden fall in stocks, and a lot of heavy failures followed by a dribble of smaller failures prolonged for an indefinite period. The absence of anything like a money panic in the present case has deceived even the shrewdest and most experienced observers of commercial events. The decline in stocks has been very gradual, and there has been no collapse of credit, yet we are having all the after effects of a crisis in full measure. Manufacturing industry is depressed to a degree hardly surpassed in our history, and mercantile failures are extraordinary in number and amount. It is a common remark among those who do not look below the surface of things, that this is "a rich man's panic." The losses of a few rich men make a stronger impression than the pinching of the great mass of the well-to-do and working-classes, whose silent but severe economy and suffering are manifest on every hand. But it is not true that this is peculiarly a rich man's panic. If the millionaires have parted with a few of their millions the poor have encroached heavily upon their past savings; and many thousands of them in the iron, woollen, and cotton trades are out of work altogether, with no immediate prospect of re-employment.

Another singular and anomalous condition of the crisis is that prices of agricultural products are depressed in a marked degree, together with those of manufactured goods. As the exchange of the one for the other really constitutes the trade of the world, it would seem that a simultaneous decline of the two ought to leave things about where they were before. Such would be the case if the decline were proportional all round, but it is not proportional. The products of handicraft have fallen in price more than the products of the soil. Sales of cotton goods have been made this winter at thirty per cent. below actual cost to the manufacturer, and an enormous quantity of like fabrics are on hand in warehouses, and cannot be sold except at prices which will not replace the capital

that they represent. No such condition exists as regards agricultural products, although prices are considerably lower than the average of this season of the year, and lower than we had reason to expect when the harvest was gathered. If the decline had been equal to that which has taken place in other departments of industry, there would be no such thing as a general depression, although there might be special cases of stagnation and distress growing out of overproduction in particular lines of trade.

A large part of the existing depression results from the slackening of railway construction since the close of the year 1882. Few persons have any adequate conception of the amount of labor and material required to build and equip a thousand miles of railway. When we say that the West Shore and Buffalo Road, for instance, has cost fifty or sixty millions of dollars, the mind can scarcely grasp a sum of such magnitude. Still less can it trace the countless channels and rivulets through which so vast a reservoir of capital has taken its refreshing course. The stoppage of such gigantic works has the same effect upon general traffic as the derailment of a fast-moving train of cars has upon the passengers, who are dragged a long distance bumping over the ties if not completely overturned.

The overproduction of railways during the past four years has been the cause of the overproduction of many other things, especially of things which enter into the construction of railways. An abnormal activity in these trades has turned more capital and labor in certain directions than can be profitably and permanently employed there. There must be a redistribution of employments, and this is in fact now going on. The cure and remedy for the hard times is to be found in this way, and no other. When the equilibrium of employments is once more reached or approximately reached, it will be found that good times have returned unperceived. Business will then start up afresh as it did in the latter part of 1879, and with as little presage of its coming.

MR. FRELINGHUYSEN ON COPYRIGHT.

THE importance of the correspondence between the American Copyright League and Mr. Frelinghuysen lies chiefly in the fact that his letter may be taken to represent the views of the Administration, and to show that should an authors' copyright bill pass Congress, the President would sign it. In a measure intended to afford international protection to authors, the President would, in the ordinary course of things, be guided by the opinion of the Secretary of State. Especially would this be the case now, when the State Department has already been appealed to to secure the same protection by way of treaty. Mr. Frelinghuysen, too, is one of the few very cautious and reticent men in public life, and would not be likely to break the silence he has carefully maintained as to copyright ever since he came into office, unless what he said was intended to go for much more than the expression of mere private opinion. He has, in fact, apparently taken the opportunity afforded him by the

letter of the League to make such a statement of the views of the Administration on the subject of copyright as it would have been long ago forced to make on the floor of Congress had the Cabinet seats there.

The correspondence shows that the Copyright League, before adopting their present plan of urging before Congress the passage of a simple authors' copyright law, very judiciously determined to get some official statement of the exact condition of the negotiations for a publishers' treaty. The possibility of obtaining copyright by means of such a treaty had been under consideration for several years, and it was generally understood that the negotiations were a failure; but so far from anything being known positively on the subject, it was not even known what were the views of the Secretary of State as to the possibility of disposing of the matter by treaty, or as to copyright in general. Any one who wished to know what Mr. Frelinghuysen's views were, had to apply confidentially, not to anybody connected with the Government, but to some publisher; and, as a result, all that he could find out was that Mr. Frelinghuysen was thought to be opposed to a treaty; but whether because he was in favor of securing copyright by some other means, or because he was a believer in piracy and "cheap books," could not be ascertained. The Copyright League determined, in the first place, to find out. They therefore wrote him a letter, in which they asked him to let them know how the negotiations stood, expressing themselves at the same time as opposed to the whole scheme of a publishers' treaty, yet willing to take even that if they could get nothing better. What the publishers had tried to get was a treaty recognizing the English author's copyright here, provided he would sell it to an American publisher within a limited time, or vice versa as to American copyright in England. What authors want, and what justice demands, is a recognition of copyright as property in both countries without any such restrictions whatever. Nevertheless the authors were willing to take for the time an instalment of justice granted them as a sort of boon by the publishers of England and America. Thus far, nobody had profited in any way by what had been attempted, except the great pirate Munro, who had neatly used the time consumed in the negotiations to make his fortune by wholesale plunder of both the foreign author and the American publisher. He, of course, must have hugely enjoyed the spectacle afforded by the discussions in the press over the question, whether the time during which justice required that the foreign author should be protected from him was three, six, or, as some people thought, nine months. Not a month, said he, not a week, not an hour. Rob the rascal as soon as he reaches the market, and give the public "cheap books."

Mr. Frelinghuysen's reply to the League is dated January 25, and states that the treaty "is still under consideration," but adds these words, which, so far as the Administration is concerned, remove all perplexity and obscurity from the path of those who have taken the matter up. He says:

"The difficulty in the way of negotiating a

formal copyright treaty with any foreign country is that the copyright laws of the two countries are usually so different that a detailed reciprocal code cannot be agreed on. Such a codified treaty necessarily puts the foreign author on a different footing from the home author, more privileged in some things it may be, and less so in others. And this difficulty is enhanced when—to quote the language of the Executive Committee's letter—such detailed stipulations 'put limitations as to time of publication and impose conditions as to manufacture that belong to regulations of trade and tariff, and not to authorship.' I am satisfied that a simpler solution of the question could be effected by some means which will give in each country to the foreign author the same right as a native author enjoys. The domestic copyright law does not attempt to legislate upon the relations between an author and his publisher, and it is not easy to see why an international compact should legislate upon a point which in each country is left to the course of trade. I think the foreigner owning a copyright should have here the same privilege as our own citizens, provided our citizens have in the foreigner's country the same rights as the natives thereof; and thereupon I would leave to the mutual convenience of the holder of the copyright and the publisher the adjustment of their contract, and leave to the tariff the task of protecting the paper makers, type foundries, printers, and other artisans who join in producing the book as a marketable article."

This was probably much more than the League expected to get. Before the reply was written, Mr. Dorsheimer had introduced in Congress his simple authors' copyright bill—embodying precisely the same suggestions which, with some amendments making the term of international copyright the same as that of domestic copyright, the Judiciary Committee has agreed to report favorably to the House. The publishers are in favor of some bill, and it is known that the cheap-book business—the 20 and 25-cent "libraries" (reprints of foreign copyright works)—has been pushed so far that there is now little or no profit either in piracy or in reprinting from advanced sheets. The advanced-sheet publisher is only a fortnight ahead of the pirate, and his "library" cuts heavily into the pirate's profits. The foreign author suffers, and nobody gains. Hence, after many long years, the sudden and significant cessation of the people's bitter cry for cheap books, and the remarkable discovery that the press of the country, the Executive, and probably a majority of Congress, are in favor of putting the right of the literary man to the enjoyment of the product of his labor on the same footing with the right of the planter to his bale of cotton, of the farmer to his acre of wheat. The League has a chance such as no movers for copyright in the last fifty years have enjoyed.

THE FEUARDENT-CESNOLA TRIAL.

THE Feuardent-Cesnola suit has at last terminated. The jury has refused to believe the attacks on the genuineness and authenticity of the Cesnola collection made by Mr. Feuardent, directly and through Mr. Clarence Cook. On the charges brought by General di Cesnola against Mr. Feuardent, in connection with their business transactions, it has failed to come to any conclusion. All this was foreshadowed clearly enough in 1881. It was tolerably

plain then that Mr. Feuardent and his friends were asserting a great many things about the collection which they were unable to prove, and were relying on such flaws, or shortcomings, or contradictions as they could detect in General di Cesnola's writings and personal history to make up for any defects there might be in their own argumentation. It was this importance of the part played in their case by the personal element which made their writing so heated and vindictive. Such fury as pervaded Mr. Clarence Cook's pamphlet and the articles in the *Times* would have been useless and ridiculous if the destruction of General di Cesnola's personal reputation had not been so needful to success of the whole enterprise. No sane man, however enthusiastic an archaeologist, could have become so excited simply over the question whether "No. 157" had had a tambourine stuck on it, or "Hercules" had been furnished with a new leg.

It is necessary to a proper understanding of the case to admit that the history of the collection furnished a good deal of material for this mode of attack. General di Cesnola did not go to Cyprus with any special or proper equipment for the work of archaeological exploration. His previous career had been that of a soldier, and not that of a savant or even a student. He acknowledged on his cross-examination that he had not given any attention to archaeology until he began to excavate, and he was then obliged to import from abroad the books with which he "studied up." He had apparently at that time not visited the Continental museums, nor familiarized himself in any way with the work that had been done in this field by the great lights of England, France, and Germany. Nor does it appear that he had any of that thorough knowledge of ancient literature which is so needful a part of an archaeologist's outfit. Moreover, he was, during his explorations and up to the time of the sale to the New York Museum, placed in the anomalous and somewhat embarrassing position of having to seek a market for his finds almost as rapidly as he reached them. He made four or five consignments of antiquities for sale in England in the course of the ten years he was in Cyprus. There is nothing discreditable in this. There was no good reason why General di Cesnola should not sell his discoveries; but we all know that nobody who is looking for a market for anything can long preserve a scientific or judicial frame of mind about it. A man may have to be at the same time a dealer and an archaeologist, but just in so far as his collections become wares must his judgment of their scientific or artistic value be disturbed or impaired. While General di Cesnola was trying to play these two not wholly compatible rôles, he wrote a good deal about the collection, both letters and articles and a book, sometimes in the character of a vender and sometimes of a virtuoso, and he was evidently all the while learning more and more about his subject, correcting some of his earlier impressions and getting a clearer knowledge of the archaeological standards and tests and terminology. It is plain from his evidence, for instance, that when he wrote his book he did not attach the precise and distinct meanings to the

words "repair" and "restore" which he has more recently made them bear.

The result of all this is, naturally, that it is possible to catch him in a good many contradictions, and inconsistencies, and misdescriptions, and failures of memory. He wrote a good many things during this, to him, most eventful and exciting period of his career, which it would doubtless be well if he had not written, and which he himself regrets, and which are capable, in the hands of an enemy, of disagreeable interpretations. But then which of us would pass with success or *à la t* through the ordeal to which he was subjected on the witness stand the other day? Who could bear to have his private letters, accounts, articles, promises, professions, explanations, during six or seven trying years, and his whole history from his boyhood, turned inside out by a bitterly hostile questioner, without suffering in some degree in dignity, if not in reputation?

The tribunal to which he submitted the Feuardent charges when they were first made, too, was, it must be admitted, unfortunately constituted. If these charges were worth examining at all, they should not have been examined by a body which, however competent, did not possess the complainant's confidence, and on whose impartiality he could cast reasonable doubts. Mr. Feuardent was not a person who could be treated with absolute contempt. He bears high testimonials from the authorities of the British Museum, who have employed him in this field as an adviser and purchaser for many years, both as to his knowledge and character. He was *prima facie* entitled to have his charges passed on by an unprejudiced jury of experts. As a matter of fact they were passed on by a body of gentlemen who were almost necessarily biased in favor of General di Cesnola, and of the contents of the Museum, and only one of whom had any reasonable claim to be considered an archaeological authority. If it be said that the questions submitted to them were questions of fact rather than of law, the answer is that the main object of the investigation was to close Feuardent's mouth, and that this could only have been done, if at all, by plainly disinterested and authoritative judges.

The mistake that Mr. Feuardent and his friends made, however, to which the court and the public owed this extraordinary and costly trial, was in supposing that if they could discredit General di Cesnola as a man, the utter unreliableness of the collection as a specimen of antique art would follow as a logical sequence. No other theory will account for the extraordinary weakness and, as it has turned out, futility of their evidence as to the nature and extent of General di Cesnola's alterations. They have not been able to show that he made extensive repairs or restorations, or that any statue whatever is "a fraudulent patchwork of unrelated parts," or that anything has been done to the collection which any competent authority considers mischievous, misleading, unprecedented, or even unusual. They have fulfilled none of the serious promises of the Cook pamphlet or the *Art Amateur* article. The jury refused to adopt the theory that even if General di Cesnola were as base as Mr. Bangs depicted him, the

collection must be worthless either for artistic or educational purposes. They evidently are prepared to hold that a bad man may be a good collector, and that a statue may have great value even if the owner tells lies about it.

The truth is that the Feuardent party has suffered a good deal from having a too ready command of the press. Their situation now reminds one of the unfortunate stock speculator who said that "exclusive information and extensive banking facilities had been the ruin of him." They had so many periodicals and able writers at their disposal that they became lavish and overweening, and forgot, what is so necessary in making charges, to conjure up vividly and frequently the possibility of some day being called on to prove them before an unsympathetic audience. The most infallible of accusers has now and then to think of the witness stand in order to prevent his indignation from running away with him. Mr. Clarence Cook must just now be thinking of this a good deal. Ever since these proceedings began, the witness stand was for that furious and implacable archaeologist the only post of honor. He ought to have passed the last three months in trying to get into it, in order to explain to an outraged community the true inwardness of this astounding fraud. And the truculent and amusing young lions of the New York *Times* ought to have sat round him on their haunches. But he avoided it as if it were a plague spot. He popped in and out of the court-room, but nobody called him, and he does not appear to have struggled or protested. This is a melancholy close to a very brilliant and exciting "art" episode.

SHOULD LYNCHING BE REVIVED?

THE Ohio lynching case recently reported reads in some respects like the cases common fifty years ago, when life and property in the new Western States were notoriously insecure, and society so unorganized that the courts of justice could not be relied upon to deal with criminals. A man named Clifford, living at a place called Rendville, was called to his door on Saturday night, and shot down in cold blood. Richard Hickey and his son, owners of a liquor-shop in the neighborhood, were arrested on suspicion, and taken before a magistrate for a preliminary hearing. While the examination was going on, twelve masked men—not twelve enraged, or furious, or excited men, but twelve "silent, steady, masked men"—came in, took the case out of the magistrate's hands, put a rope round the younger criminal's neck, "hoisted" him, and then proceeded to conduct a preliminary examination of their own. This resulted in a speedy declaration by the young man that his father committed the crime. The elder Hickey was then "hoisted," but he protested his innocence, and was thereupon hoisted and rehoisted until he was strangled to death. It is not known who the lynchers were, but they are believed to be "peaceful and quiet citizens" who "thought the circumstances under which Clifford lost his life, in view of the uncertainty of the courts, required that speedy justice be done." There is "general regret," the despatch adds, that "this act of lawlessness occurred," but there are "few sympathizers" with Hickey.

The unfortunate point in the case is that it seems at least doubtful whether the old man committed the crime at all. The only explanation of the murder of Clifford is that a brother of his had recently married a daughter of old Hickey, and that he had subsequently said that he would rather have seen his brother dead in his coffin than married to her. This enraged the old man so that he at once murdered Clifford. It is evident, however, that this evidence is defective; for, assuming that such a remark is necessarily wiped out in blood by the family of the slighted girl, the act of vengeance is after all as likely to be executed by a brother as by a father, and so we are not surprised to find that another member of the family declares that an older son, who has since escaped, fired the shot.

If this were an isolated case, we should not think so much of it; but there have been recently several indications pointing to the prevalence of a feeling in some parts of the United States that lynching, on account of the difficulty of executing murderers, must be revived. In Colorado the other day, a woman was summarily tried and executed by a number of "silent, steady" neighbors—the first woman, it is said, ever lynched in that "section"; and within a few miles of New York a ruffian who had made a murderous assault, but had not actually taken life, was rescued from a crowd of lynchers with great difficulty. In all these cases, the lynching, successful or attempted, is the work of the neighbors, acting in a hasty but organized way, and therefore in a way that makes all talk of punishment idle. They resemble each other in springing from a feeling that the law is so uncertain, and the difficulty of hanging murderers so great, that lynching has "got to come." A return to the custom of lynching in civilized communities is, however, a vastly more serious matter than its temporary outbreak in a pioneer State. In California such work as was done by the vigilance committee was always looked upon as merely a temporary substitute for the regulated administration of justice by the courts. It was always treated in the press and even by foreign observers as destined to disappear as the community grew civilized. But a revival of lynching in the midst of magistrates, sheriffs, police, detectives, and courts of justice, regularly organized and dealing with crimes against the person, can only be talked about as a "remedy" for anything by those who take a very black view of our social condition. A revival of lynching can only be excused by the admission that the courts do not, for some reason, administer justice in criminal cases; or, in other words, that they positively encourage crime.

We actually do hear, in communities like New York and Ohio, the complaint that the law is in such a state that murderers cannot be hung. Here, for instance, owing to the great facility of appeal and technical defence, we have practically three trials—one with the jury, one in the Supreme Court, and one in the Court of Appeals—before we know whether there is even a good chance of a murderer being hung. This comes, apparently,

from the fact that the Legislature, whenever it is appealed to to make the procedure in murder cases a little more complicated than it was before, invariably does it. The acts which it passes, it is true, usually attract little or no attention at the time they are passed, and their existence is often unknown to the public till they are brought out in the progress of some trial. They are often passed at the instance of the class of criminal lawyers who in our large cities make fortunes out of the delays in criminal cases, and are essentially "private" bills, designed for the exclusive benefit of murderers.

But such laws could not be passed or remain for an instant on the statute books of any community in which there was not a vast amount of latent sympathy with crime of this sort, and a very feeble feeling of the importance of punishing murder rapidly and in a way to enforce the lesson upon the criminal class. No such statutes get passed in England or France or Germany. There is nothing to prevent their repeal here, if we want to have them repealed. A revival of lynching, however, or the taking of the work of judge, jury, and executioner into private and volunteer hands is a singular way of correcting or removing the causes from which the trouble springs. It is not found necessary to lynch or administer private justice upon thieves, because there is no liking for theft in the community, and consequently none gets into the Legislature. Of course, if murderers are not punished by the courts they will be in other ways, but a revival of lynching, or the fact that lynching has "got to come" in a modern civilized State can only be looked upon as not a cheering sign of hope or progress, but as an awful warning. It has "got to come" in the same sense that the plague or cholera has got to come if we do not prevent its coming. If there is a "feeling abroad" as to the uncertainty of murder trials, why does it not find its way into the Legislature? May it not be said that the very fact that it does not tends to throw doubt on the existence of any such feeling, which is not removed by the exploits of "silent, steady," masked executioners, however usually quiet and peaceable?

DOCTORS IN COURT.

A VOLUME has just been privately printed in Pennsylvania by Dr. George L. Harrison, formerly President of the Board of Public Charities of that State, collecting all the legislation of the modern civilized world on the protection of the insane. Dr. Harrison is a lawyer and a philanthropist, and has made a special study of this subject in all its aspects. The result throws some light on one or two questions of considerable interest to the public and the medical profession, in connection not only with the protection of the insane, but with expert testimony as to insanity.

A generation ago there was comparatively little indication in the laws relating to insanity of any prevalent dread of intrusting the decision of the fact of insanity to physicians. The general view was that the certificate of two or three doctors to a man's being out

of his mind was reason enough for shutting him up, and taking away his property from him. When an English novelist undertook to show that such a system might lead to terrible consequences, what he said was generally thought in this country to be the exposure of an English abuse, and to have little application to the United States. But Dr. Harrison says that precisely this abuse is to be found in Pennsylvania to-day. He gives several cases which have come under his own observation. In one of these a boy, perfectly sane, but suffering from the effects of an amputation, was locked up in an asylum, and was nearly driven crazy when he discovered where he was. He was released, and is now earning a living and married. In two of the cases, the patients were, properly speaking, kidnapped by the doctors; an attempt to inquire into their conduct in one of them came to nothing. In another, a man of considerable means was caught, shut up for nine months in a "retreat," at a distance from his friends, who did not know where he was. His property was handed over to a committee, and it was not till after nine months that he managed to obtain his liberty again. When the matter came up in court it appeared that the only ground for thinking him insane, even after he reached the hospital, was his habit of walking up and down the corridors and talking about himself.

Such are the results of leaving the right to decide the fact of insanity to physicians, and the tendency of legislation now is to insist upon a judge's decision in addition to that of the doctors. This is the law of Massachusetts to-day. In New York the judge is, as we understand it, not obliged by law to pass upon the question, but he has the right to do so, and generally now exercises it. A decision by him ought to be obligatory, as the question is not purely a medical one, and the doctors are in most cases paid for their certificate by some one who has an interest in depriving the patient of the control of his property. The question whether a man can take care of his property is a question which it is far safer to leave to any fair-minded lawyer, occupying a responsible position, than to a couple of casual alienists who may have been called in for this purpose, and who have at any rate the usual alienists' facility for finding lunacy in every case they examine.

The tendency which is thus exhibited in the laws of some States is found in the verdicts of juries in others. A curious illustration of this fact is given in the Meredith case in Philadelphia, in which the jury has just returned a verdict of sanity in the case of a gentleman who was proved to be subject to a delusion that he was "persecuted" by enemies—a strong indication of insanity—whose delusion was declared by the judge in his charge to "belong to a dangerous class or type," and who had, in consequence, been during most of the time since 1877 either "in actual confinement," or "under a moral restraint," and as to whom the experts testified that the removal of his restraint would cause his insanity to break out again. That the jury should have, under such circumstances, decided that Mr. Meredith was entitled to his liberty, could only have come

from an entire disregard of the doctors' testimony. The distrust of medical testimony exhibited in this case is shown not only by juries, but by every good judge who has to pass upon it. He always nowadays warns the jury against the testimony of the doctors, as entitled to very little weight. The effect of the prevalent feeling on the subject is seen in all trials like the Meredith case, in all will contests, and generally in murder trials, though here it seems to be more than balanced by sympathy for the criminal. It is this sympathy which is at the root of the difficulty of getting criminals hung; but the doctors here come in to furnish a medical basis for a perjured verdict. As long as the prisoner, therefore, is allowed to introduce evidence on his own behalf—and how this is to be prevented it is difficult to see—the introduction of the State expert system, frequently recommended by writers who discuss this subject, will not avail much, although it will of course be an improvement. If physicians who give such evidence on the subject of insanity as we meet with every month or so now in criminal trials, are never punished either by their own profession or by the law, "experts" will continue to be produced for the purpose of giving a semblance of decency to verdicts of acquittal, and so long the prejudice against medical testimony in general will deepen.

THE RUMFORD MEDALLIST.

It is well understood that the "Rumford Medal" is about to be awarded by the American Academy of Arts and Sciences, in Boston, to Prof. Henry A. Rowland, of the Johns Hopkins University. Great as this honor is, it has been so rarely bestowed that the public may be excused for inquiring, "What is the Rumford Medal?" and "Why is it given to Rowland?" We shall try to answer these questions, though as to the former "the intelligent reader" will do well to turn for himself to the pages of Rumford's 'Life,' which was written by Dr. George E. Ellis a few years since.

On the 12th of July, 1796, nearly ninety years ago, that learned, humane, versatile, foresighted philosopher, who began his life as Benjamin Thompson, of New Hampshire, and ended it as Count Rumford of Bavaria, addressed two letters, in nearly the same words, to the Royal Society of London and the American Academy of Boston. Their purpose was to convey £1,000, or \$5,000, to each of these scientific bodies, to be held as a fund, the income of which should be given every second year in premiums for important discoveries or useful improvements which might be published (within the two years previous) on heat or on light. If nothing should appear worthy of the prize, the premium was to be withheld and the income applied to the augmenting of the capital. One of the premiums was offered exclusively for discoveries made public in any part of Europe; the second, in any part of America.

During most of this century the Royal Society has had but little difficulty in discharging its trust. Rumford, Davy, and Brewster were among the first to receive the prize, and then there came a barren period, between 1818 and 1834, with but one fruitful year, when Fresnel was honored for his work on 'Polarized Light.' From 1840, onward, there is an unbroken series of biennial awards. A mere catalogue of the worthies who have thus been decorated suggests the history of modern physical research:

Faraday, Regnault, Arago, Stokes, Pasteur, Kirchhoff, Tyndall, Jamin, Clerk Maxwell, Des Cloizeaux, Angström, Lockyer, Janssen, Cornu, Huggins, and Abney. In this country the task at first was not so easy, and no award was made during a period of more than forty years. In 1831 the difficulty of finding worthy competitors appeared so great, that the American Academy requested permission from the Legislature of Massachusetts, and finally obtained it, to use a part of the income for purposes akin to, but not identical with, those proposed by the founder of the prize. In 1839, for the first time, an award was made, and the Rumford Medal was bestowed on Robert Hare, of Philadelphia, for his invention of the compound blowpipe. Another barren period followed. At length, in 1862, Ericsson received the medal for his calorific engine; and in 1863 it was given to Professor Treadwell, of Harvard, "for improvements in the management of heat." It was next awarded, in 1867, to Alvan Clark, for his improvement in the telescope lens. In 1870 it was given to George H. Corlies, of Providence, for improvements in the steam engine. At a later day it was given to Dr. John W. Draper, of New York, for his discoveries in the theory of light. The latest award, prior to the current year, was to Prof. Willard Gibbs, of Yale College, for researches in thermodynamics.

All this is an old story, in which there happens to be a fresh interest because of the recognition now given to the work of Professor Rowland. As yet this is not well known to the public, for his printed statements in regard to it are brief and scattered, and have not yet permeated to the popular compendiums of science. But his inventions and discoveries are perfectly well known to physicists, for they have been repeatedly brought to the attention of learned societies at home and abroad. The admirable ruled surfaces, or "diffraction gratings," as they are commonly called, which were made by Mr. L. M. Rutherford, of New York, for spectrum analysis, have been for several years past among the most important instruments for investigations in respect to the nature of the sun's light. Mr. Rowland conceived the idea of improving these gratings, partly by making the surface on which they are ruled concave, and partly by a new and better method of ruling. He devised a new method of making the screw which guides the cutting diamond, and designed the whole dividing engine so as to obtain the highest accuracy. In both particulars he was successful. The machine worked so perfectly when it was first mounted for a trial, that it has never been taken down, but has steadily, by night and by day, pursued its accurate course. If he had paused here, after giving to the physicists of the world these gratings as instruments for further investigation, he would have made a grand contribution to physical science; but he did not rest content. He mounted his own gratings in a spectroscopic of an original construction, in a room fitted up as a camera obscura, and there for two years past he has been making a photograph of the spectrum on a scale never before attempted. In this part of his work he has had the benefit of personal relations with Captain Abney, of the Royal Engineers, whose scientific researches in photography need only be alluded to. A photographic map of the spectrum is now well advanced toward publication, which will show to the world exactly what this invention has done.

One curious fact is worth adding. The scene of Professor Rowland's activity is a small "back-building" (as they call it in Baltimore), fitted up as a mechanic's shop, in Howard Street near the University. The screw which does the

ruling is down in a dark cellar where the temperature is nearly uniform, and the camera where the photographic work is carried on is the garret of an adjacent dwelling house. Nothing could be humbler than these unpretentious laboratories; but hither have come pilgrims from this and other lands—Cayley, Spencer, Sylvester, Carpenter, Newcomb, Hall, Young, Langley, Trowbridge, Draper, and many more, to watch with their own eyes the marvellous furrows of the little diamond plough, to wonder at the brilliant hues of the spectrum revealed by the grating, and to see the mysterious multitudes of lines which may be counted on the photographic plates.

We have referred to these researches on the solar spectrum because they are the most recent. It is probable, however (though we have not seen it so stated), that the award to Professor Rowland is based partly on a previous study of the mechanical equivalent of heat. In 1877 he began an investigation on this subject—after a preliminary study of thermometers, which was of importance—aided in the construction of a new instrument which he had invented by an appropriation from the Rumford fund of the American Academy. The main conclusion of his elaborate and original inquiry was a close confirmation of the value already announced by Joule. His paper on this subject was printed by the American Academy. A second paper, in which an elaborate review was made of all similar investigations, was honored with a premium from an Academy in Venice, and printed there. It is only just to add that the work of Professor Rowland has been generously encouraged by the Trustees of the Johns Hopkins University, who have given him ample pecuniary support, and have allowed him abundant freedom for the prosecution of his great research.

WENDELL PHILLIPS.

LIKE so many eminent men in New England, Mr. Phillips traced his line of descent to a Puritan clergyman—in this case the Rev. George Phillips, first minister of Watertown, Mass. From him was descended, in the fifth generation, John Phillips, first Mayor of Boston, who was chosen in 1822, a sort of compromise candidate between Harrison Gray Otis and Josiah Quincy, who equally divided public favor. John Phillips is credited by tradition with "a pliable disposition," which he certainly did not transmit to his son. He was a graduate of Harvard College in 1788, held various public offices, and was for many years "Town Advocate and Public Prosecutor," a function which certainly became, in a less official sense, hereditary in the family. He was a man of wealth and reputation; and he built for himself a large mansion, which is conspicuous in the early engravings of Boston, and which is still standing at the lower corner of Beacon and Walnut Streets. There Wendell Phillips was born November 29, 1811. He was thus placed by birth in the most favored worldly position, the whole Phillips family being rich and influential, at a time when social demarcations were more distinct than now. He was, however, brought up wisely, since John Phillips made this rule for his children: "Ask no man to do for you anything that you are not able and willing to do for yourself." Accordingly his son claimed in later life that there was hardly any kind of ordinary trade or manual labor used in New England at which he had not done many a day's work. He attended the Boston Latin School, entered Harvard College before he was sixteen, and was graduated (in 1831) before he was twenty, in the same class with Motley, the historian. Both of them had per-

sonal beauty, elegance, and social position; and Mr. Phillips always readily testified that both of them had certain narrow prejudices which he outgrew very soon, and Motley in the end.

It is rare for any striking career to have a dramatic beginning; but it may be truly said of Wendell Phillips that his first recorded speech established his reputation as an orator, and determined the career of his life. Being graduated at the Cambridge Law School in 1833, he was admitted to the bar in 1834. In 1835 he witnessed the mobbing of Garrison; in 1836 joined the American Anti-Slavery Society. In 1837 occurred the great excitement which raged in Congress around John Quincy Adams when he stood for the right of petition; and in November of that year Elijah P. Lovejoy was murdered at Alton, Ill., while defending his press from a pro-slavery mob. The Rev. Dr. Channing and others asked for the use of Faneuil Hall for a meeting to express their indignation; the city authorities refused it; Dr. Channing then wrote an appeal to the citizens of Boston, and the authorities yielded to the demand. At the Faneuil Hall meeting Jonathan Phillips, a wealthy citizen and a second cousin of Wendell Phillips, presided; Dr. Channing spoke, and then two young lawyers, Hallett and Hillard. James Trecothick Austin, Attorney-General of the State, then took the platform, and his speech soon proved the meeting to be divided on the main question, with a bias toward the wrong side. He said that Lovejoy died as the fool dieth, and compared his murderers to the men who threw the tea into Boston Harbor. The meeting broke into applause, and seemed ready to go with Austin, when Wendell Phillips came on the platform amid hisses that scarcely allowed him to be heard. Almost at his first words he took the meeting in his hands, and brought it back to its real object. "When I heard," he said, "the gentleman lay down principles which placed the murderers of Alton side by side with Otis and Hancock, with Quincy and Adams, I thought these pictured lips (pointing to their portraits) would have broken into voice to rebuke the recreant American, the slanderer of the dead." From that moment the tide was turned, the meeting carried, the oratorical fame of Wendell Phillips secured, and his future career determined. From this time forward, and while slavery remained, he was first and chiefly an abolitionist; all other reforms were subordinate to this, and this was his life. To this he sacrificed his social position, his early friendships, his professional career. Possessing a sufficient independent property, he did not incur the added discomfort of poverty; but, being rich, he made himself as it were poor through life; reduced his personal wants to the lowest terms, earned all the money he could by lecturing, and gave away all that he could spare.

He was fortunate in wedding a wife in perfect sympathy with him—Miss Ann T. Greene—and indeed he always said that her influence first made him an abolitionist. A life-long invalid, rarely leaving her room, she had yet such indomitable courage, such keenness of wit, such insight into character that she really divided with him the labors of his career. It is impossible for those who knew them both to think of him without her; it is sad to think of her without him. They lived on Essex Street in a region almost deserted by residences and given over to shops; the house was plain and bare, without and within; they had no children, and, except during the brief period when their adopted daughter was with them, the home seemed almost homeless outside of the walls of Mrs. Phillips's apartment. There indeed—for her husband and her few intimates—peace and courage ruled, with

joy and hilarity not seldom added. But for many years Mr. Phillips was absent a great deal from home on his lecture tours, though these rarely extended Westward or over very long routes. Both he and his wife regarded these lectures as his main mission; for, even if he only spoke on "The Lost Arts" or "Street Life in Europe," it gave him a personal hold upon each community he visited, and the next time, perhaps, an anti-slavery lecture would be demanded, or one on temperance or woman's rights. He always claimed this sort of preliminary influence, in particular, for his lecture on Daniel O'Connell, which always secured for him a great following among our Irish fellow-citizens, at a time when they were bitterly arrayed against the anti-slavery movement.

Unlike his coadjutor, Edmund Quincy, Wendell Phillips disavowed being a non-resistant. That scruple, as well as the alleged pro-slavery character of the Constitution, precluded most of the Garrisonian abolitionists from voting or holding office, but Phillips was checked by his anti-slavery convictions alone. This fact made him, like Theodore Parker, a connecting link between the non-resistants and the younger school of abolitionists who believed in physical opposition to the local encroachments, at least, of the slave power. They formed various loosely-knit associations for this purpose, of which he was not a member; but he was ready with sympathy and money. In one of their efforts, the Burns rescue, he always regretted the mishap which for want of due explanation threw him on the side of caution, where he did not belong. At the Faneuil Hall meeting, which it was proposed to transfer bodily to Court Square, Theodore Parker was notified of the project, but misunderstood the signal; Wendell Phillips was never even notified, for want of time, and was very unjustly blamed. It is doubtful whether he was, in his very fibre, a man of action; but he never discouraged those who were such, nor had he the slightest objection to violating law where human freedom was at stake. A man of personal courage he eminently was. In the intense and temporary revival of the mob feeling in Boston, in the autumn and winter of 1860, when a John Brown meeting was broken up by the same class of "gentlemen of property and standing" who had mobbed Garrison, Wendell Phillips was the object of special hostility. He was then speaking every Sunday at the Music Hall, to Theodore Parker's congregation, and was each Sunday followed home by a mob, while personally defended by a self-appointed body-guard. On one occasion the demonstrations were so threatening that he was with difficulty persuaded to leave the hall by a side entrance and was driven to his home with a fast horse by the same Dr. David Thayer who watched his dying bed. For several nights his house was guarded by a small body-guard of friends within and by the police without. During all this time there was something peculiarly striking and characteristic in his demeanor. There was absolutely nothing of bull-dog combativeness; but a careless, buoyant, almost patrician air, as if nothing in the way of mob violence were worth considering, and as if all threats of opponents were simply beneath contempt; he seemed like some English Jacobite cavalier on the scaffold, carelessly taking snuff and kissing his hand to the crowd before laying his head upon the block.

No other person than Garrison could be said to do much in the way of guiding the "Garrisonian" anti-slavery movement; and Wendell Phillips was thoroughly and absolutely loyal to his great chief. In the details of the agitation, perhaps the leading organizers and strategists were two remarkable women, Maria Weston

Chapman and Abby Kelley Foster. The function of Wendell Phillips was to supply the eloquence; but he was not wanting either in grasp of principles or interest in details. He thoroughly accepted the non-voting theory, and was ready not only to speak at any time, but to write, which he found far harder, in opposition to those abolitionists, like Lysander Spooner, who were always trying to prove the United States Constitution an anti-slavery instrument. His "The Constitution a Pro-Slavery Compact" (1844), though almost wholly a compilation from the Madison papers, was for many years a storehouse of argument for the disunion abolitionists; and it went through a series of editions.

In later life he often wrote letters to the newspapers, in which he did not always appear to advantage. But he did very little writing on the whole; it always came hard to him, and he had, indeed, a theory that the same person could never succeed both in speaking and writing, because they required such different habits of mind. Even as to reports of his speeches he was quite indifferent, and it was rather hard to persuade him to interest himself in the volume of "Speeches, Lectures, and Essays," which was prepared by James Redpath in 1863. The editor was a good deal censured at the time for retaining in these speeches the expressions of applause or disapprobation which appeared in the original newspaper reports, and which Mr. Phillips had erased. It is, however, fortunate that he did so; it not only increases their value as memorials of the time, but it brings out that close contact and intercommunion with his audience which was an inseparable part of the oratory of Wendell Phillips. He also published "The Constitution a Pro-Slavery Compact" (1844); "Can Abolitionists Vote or Take Office?" (1845); "Review of Spooner's Constitutionality of Slavery" (1847), and other similar pamphlets. He also showed real literary power and an exquisite felicity in the delineation of character in his memorial tributes to some of his friends, as, for instance, the philanthropist Mrs. Eliza Garbutt, of Boston, whose only daughter (now Mrs. G. W. Smalley, of London) he afterward adopted.

The keynote to the oratory of Wendell Phillips lay in this: that it was essentially conversational—the conversational raised to its highest power. Perhaps no orator ever spoke with so little apparent effort or began so entirely on the plane of his average hearers. It was as if he simply repeated in a little louder tone what he had just been saying to some familiar friend at his elbow. The effect was absolutely disarming. Those accustomed to spread-eagle oratory felt perhaps a slight sense of disappointment. Could this quiet, easy, effortless man be Wendell Phillips? But he held them by his very quietness; it did not seem to have occurred to him to doubt his power to hold them. The poise of his manly figure, the easy grace of his attitude, the thrilling modulation of his perfectly trained voice, the dignity of his gesture, the keen penetration of his eye, all aided to keep his hearers in hand. The colloquiation was never relaxed, but it was familiarity without loss of keeping; when he said "isn't" and "wasn't," or even, like an Englishman, dropped his g's and said "bein'" and "doin'," it did not seem inelegant; he might almost have been ungrammatical and it would not have impaired the fine air of the man. Then, as the argument went on, the voice grew deeper, the action more animated, and the sentences would come in a long sonorous swell, still easy and graceful, but powerful as the soft stretching of a tiger's paw. He could be terse as Carlyle; or his sentences could be as prolonged and cumulative as those of Choate or Evarts; no matter, they carried the

same charm. He was surpassed by Garrison in grave moral logic; by Parker, in the grasp of facts, and in merciless sarcasm; by Sumner, in copiousness of illustration; by Douglass, in humor and in pathos; but after all, in the perfect moulding of the orator, he surpassed not merely each of these, but all of them combined. What the Revolutionary orators would now seem to us we cannot tell, but it is pretty certain that of all our post-Revolutionary orators, save Webster only, Wendell Phillips stood at the head; while he and Webster represented types of oratory so essentially different that any comparison between them is like trying to compare an oak tree to a pine.

He was not moody or variable, or did not seem so; yet he always approached speaking with a certain reluctance, and never could quite sympathize with the desire to listen either to him or to any one else. As he walked toward the lecture room he would say to a friend, "Why do people go to lectures? There is a respectable man and woman; they must have a good home; why do they leave it for the sake of hearing somebody talk?" This was not affectation, but the fatigue of playing too long on one string. Just before coming on the platform at a convention he would remark with absolute sincerity, "I have absolutely nothing to say"; and then would go on to make, especially if hissed or interrupted, one of his very best speeches. Nothing spurred him like opposition, and it was not an unknown thing for one of his young admirers to take a back seat in the hall to stimulate him by a counterfeited hiss if the meeting seemed too tame. Then the unsuspecting orator would rouse himself like a lion. Again, when this opposition came not from friends but foes, it was peculiarly beneficial; and perhaps the greatest oratorical triumph he ever accomplished was on that occasion in Faneuil Hall (January 30, 1852), when it was reopened to the abolitionists after the capture of the slave Thomas Sims. Mr. Webster's friends were there in force, and drowned Mr. Phillips's voice by repeated cheers for their favorite, when Mr. Phillips so turned the laugh against them each time, in the intervals when they paused for breath, that their cheers grew fainter and fainter, and he had at last mobbed the mob.

He used to deny having trained himself for an orator; drew habitually from but few books. Tocqueville's "Democracy in America" being among the chief of these; but read newspapers enormously, and magazines a good deal; while he had the memory of an orator or a literary man, never letting pass an effective anecdote or a telling fact. These he turned to infinite account, never sparing ammunition and never fearing to repeat himself. He used to say that he knew but one thing thoroughly—the history of the English Revolution—and from this he obtained morals whenever he wanted them, and, to tell the truth, used them in almost any direction. He knew the history of the American Revolution also; Sam Adams being his favorite hero. He was a thorough Bostonian too; and his anti-slavery enthusiasm never rose quite so high as when blended with local patriotism. No one who heard it can ever forget the thrilling modulation of his voice when he said, at some special crisis of the anti-slavery agitation: "I love inexpressibly these streets of Boston over whose pavements my mother held up tenderly my baby feet, and, if God grants me time enough, I will make them too pure to bear the footsteps of a slave." At the very outset he doubtless sometimes prepared his speeches with care, but his first great success was won off-hand, and afterward, during that period of incessant practice,

which Emerson makes the secret of his power, he relied generally upon his vast accumulated store of facts and illustrations, and his tried habit of thinking on his legs. On special occasions he would make preparation, and sometimes, though rarely, wrote out his speeches beforehand. No one could possibly recognize this, however; he never seemed more at his ease, more colloquial, more thoroughly extemporaneous than in his remarkable address before the Phi Beta Kappa Society at Cambridge; yet it had all been sent to the Boston daily papers in advance, and appeared with scarcely a word's variation, except where he had been compelled to omit some passages for want of time. That was, in some respects, the most remarkable effort of his life; it was a tardy recognition of him by his own college and his own literary society; and he held an unwilling audience spell bound, while bating absolutely nothing of radicalism. Many a respectable lawyer or divine felt his blood run cold next day when he found that the fascinating orator whom he had applauded to the echo had really made the assassination of an emperor seem as trivial as the doom of a mosquito.

He occupied during most of his life the willing position of a tribune of the people; nor was there any class with which he was unwilling to be, logically and politically at least, identified. Emerson, while thoroughly true to the anti-slavery movement, always confessed to feeling a slight instinctive aversion to negroes; Theodore Parker uttered frankly his dislike to the Irish. Yet neither of these had distinctly aristocratic impulses, while Phillips had. His conscience set them aside so imperatively that he himself hardly knew that they were there; he was always ready to be identified with the colored people; always ready to give his oft-repeated lecture on O'Connell to the fellow countrymen of that hero; but in these and all cases his democratic habit had the good-natured air of some kindly young prince; he never was quite the equal associate that he seemed. The want of it never was seen by his associates; it was in his dealing with his antagonists that the real attitude came out. When he once spoke contemptuously of those who dined with a certain Boston club which had censured him, as "men of no family," the real mental habit came out. And in his external aspect and bearing the patrician air never quite left him—the air that he had in college days, or in that period when, as Edmund Quincy delighted to tell, an English visitor pointed out to George Ticknor two men walking down Park Street, and added the cheerful remark, "They are the only men I have seen in your country who looked like gentlemen." The two men were the abolitionists Quincy and Phillips in whose personal aspect the conservative Ticknor could see little to commend.

There is no fame so intoxicating or so transient as that of mere oratory. Some of the most accomplished orators whom America has produced have died within a few years in mid-career and left scarcely a ripple on the surface. Two of these, to name no others, were ex-Governor Bullock, of Massachusetts, and Professor Diman, of Rhode Island. Neither of them had the fortune to be identified with any great moral enterprise or to stand before the public for a long time and be the mouthpiece of its indignation or its aims. It was not chance that gave this position to Wendell Phillips. A great many elements of genius, studies, social prestige, and moral self-sacrifice had to be combined to produce it. It never turned his head; his aims were too high for that, and he was aided by the happy law of compensation, which is apt to make men indifferent

to easily-won laurels. There is no doubt that, in the height of his fame as a lecturer or platform speaker, he often chafed under the routine and the fatigue; and felt that, had not fate or Providence betrayed him, his career would have been very different. He felt that, coming forward into life with his powers and at the time he did, he might easily have won the positions which went easily to men less richly endowed—as Abbott Lawrence and Robert C. Winthrop; and that, had he been once within the magic circle of public office, he could have used it for noble ends, like his favorite, Sir Samuel Romilly. "What I should have liked," he said once to a friend, "would have been the position of United States Senator for Massachusetts"; and though he never even dreamed of this as possible for himself, he saw his friend Sumner achieve a position which he himself, could he once have accepted its limitations, might equally have adorned.

It is impossible to say how office might have affected him; whether it would have given him just that added amount of reasonableness and good judgment which in later years seemed often wanting, or whether it would have only betrayed him to new dangers. He never had it; and the arduous life-long habits of the platform told upon him. The platform speaker has his especial dangers as conspicuously as the lawyer or the clergyman; he acquires insensibly the habit of a gladiator, and the better his fencing the more he becomes the slave of his own talent. *Les hommes exercés à l'esclime ont beau vouloir ménager leur adversaire, l'habitude est plus forte, ils ripostent malgré eux.* As under this law the Vicomte de Camors seduced, almost against his will, the wife of the comrade to whom he had pledged his life, so Wendell Phillips, once with rapier in hand, insensibly fought to win as well as for the glory of God. The position once taken must be maintained—the opponent must be overwhelmed by almost any means. No advocate in any court was quicker than he to shift his ground, to introduce a new shade of meaning, to abandon an obvious interpretation and insist on a more subtle one. Every man makes mistakes; but you might almost count upon your ten fingers the number of times that Wendell Phillips, during his whole lifetime, owned himself to be in the wrong or made a concession to an adversary. In criticising his career in this respect, we may almost reverse the celebrated censure passed on the charge of the Six Hundred, and may say that it was not heroic, but it was war.

If this was the case during the great contest with slavery, the evil was more serious after slavery fell. The civil war gave to Phillips, as it gave to many men, an opportunity, but it was not, in his case, a complete opportunity. At first he was disposed to welcome secession, as fulfilling the wishes of years; "to build," as he said, "a bridge of gold for the Southern States to walk over in leaving the Union." This mood passed, and he accepted the situation, aiding the departing regiments with voice and purse. Yet it was long before the war took a genuinely anti-slavery character, and younger men than he were holding aloof from it for that reason. He distrusted Lincoln for his deliberation and believed in Fremont; in short, for a variety of reasons, took no clear and unmistakable attitude. After the war had overthrown slavery, the case was even worse. It was a study of character to note the differing demeanors of the great abolitionist leaders after that event. Edmund Quincy found himself wholly out of harness, *déseuillé*; there was no other battle worth fighting. He simply reverted for the rest of his life to that career of

cultivated leisure from which the anti-slavery movement had wrenched him for forty years; he was a critic of music, a frequent-er of the theatres. Garrison, on the other hand, with his usual serene and unabated vigor, went on contending for the rights of the freed men and of women, as before for those of the slaves. Unlike either of these, Wendell Phillips manifested for the remainder of his life a certain restlessness; always seemed to be crying, like Shakspeare's *Hotspur*, "Fye upon this idle life!" and to be always seeking for some new tournament. This would not perhaps have been an evil had he not carried with him into each new enterprise the habits of the platform, and of the anti-slavery platform in particular. There never was a great moral movement so logically simple as the anti-slavery reform; once grant that man could not rightfully hold property in man, and the intellectual part of the debate was settled; only the moral appeal remained, and there Wendell Phillips was master, and could speak as one having authority. Slavery gone, he found himself thrown, by his own life-long habit, into a series of new reforms, where the questions involved were wholly different and at a different stage of development. You could not settle the relations of capital and labor off-hand, by saying, as in the case of slavery, "Let my people go"; the matter was far more complex. It was like trying to adjust a chronometer with no other knowledge than that won by observing a sun-dial. In dealing with questions of currency it was still worse. And yet Wendell Phillips went on, for the remainder of his life, preaching crusades on these difficult questions, which he gave no sign of ever having seriously studied, and appealing to prejudice and passion as ardently as if he still had three million slaves for whom to plead.

It was worse still when, with the natural habit of a reformer, he found himself readily accepting the companionship into which these new causes brought him. The tone of the anti-slavery apostles was exceedingly high, but there were exceptions even there. "He is a great scoundrel," said Theodore Parker of a certain blatant orator in Boston, "but he loves liberty." It was true and was fairly to be taken into account. You do not demand a Sunday-school certificate from the man who is rescuing your child from a burning house. But it is to be said, beyond this, that though the demagogue and the true reformer are at opposite extremes, they have certain points in common. Society is apt to make them both for a time outcasts, and outcasts fraternize. They alike distrust the staid and conventional class and they are distrusted by it. When a man once gets in the habit of measuring merit by martyrdoms, he discriminates less closely, and the best abused man, for whatever cause, seems nearest to sainthood. Mr. Phillips, at his best, had not always shown keen discrimination as a judge of character; and the fact that the Boston newspapers thought ill of General Butler, for instance, was to him a strong point in that gentleman's favor. In this he showed himself less discriminating than his old associate Stephen Foster, one of the most heroic and frequently-mobbed figures in anti-slavery history; for Stephen Foster sat with great reluctance to see Caleb Cushing mobbed and silenced in Faneuil Hall by his own soldiers, after the Mexican war; and only lamented that so good a mob, which might have helped the triumph of some good cause, should be wasted on so worthless a creature as he. Fortunately it would have been for Wendell Phillips if he had gone no further than this; but he insisted on arguing from the mob to the man, forgetting the people may be censured as well for their sins as for their

virtues. The last years of his life thus placed him in close coöperation with a man whose real motives and methods were totally unlike his own; indeed, the most unscrupulous soldier of fortune who ever posed as a Friend of the People on this side the Atlantic.

But all these last days, and the increasing irritability with which he impulsively took up questions to which he could contribute nothing but courage and vehemence, will be at least temporarily forgotten now that he is gone. They will disappear from memory like the selfishness of Hancock or the vanity of John Adams in the light of a devoted, self-sacrificing, and courageous career. With all his faults, his inconsistencies, his impetuous words, and his unreasoning prejudices, he belonged to the heroic type. Whether we regard him mainly as an orator or as a participant in important events, it is certain that no history of the United States will ever be likely to omit his name. It is rarely that any great moral agitation bequeaths to posterity more than two or three names; the English slave-trade abolition has left only Clarkson and Wilberforce in memory; the great Corn Law contest only Cobden and Bright. The American anti-slavery movement will probably embalm the names of Garrison, Phillips, and John Brown. This is for the future to decide. Meanwhile, it is certain that Wendell Phillips had during life that quality that Emerson thought the highest of all qualities—of being "something that cannot be skipped or undermined." Now that he is gone, even those who most criticised him will instinctively feel that one great chapter of American history is closed.

A LIVERPOOL ART GALLERY.

LONDON, January 16.

OF the thousands of travellers weekly passing through Liverpool, scarcely one in a month finds his way to the Gallery of Art of the Royal Institution. Indeed, it requires some perseverance to arrive there; for, of the inhabitants of the town, and even of the policemen, few know the whereabouts of the place, and the enterprising person who eventually reaches the door (unless indeed it be on a Monday) probably finds it closed and the building apparently deserted. Let him, nevertheless, ring, and boldly walk up stairs, asking no questions, for there are pictures hanging upon the four walls of the main room on the first floor that are well worth an hour's inspection.

The history of this little neglected gallery might be told in a few words, were it worth while, but a hurried reader will be thankful to be introduced at once to the paintings themselves. Of these, there are some hundred and fifty or more, many of them indifferent, many interesting only historically; there remains, however, a residuum of real excellence. The two or three Byzantine paintings of the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, rare though such works are in the galleries of Europe, belong, perhaps, to the historically interesting class, and the same may be said of a mutilated panel painted with a "Coronation of the Virgin" by Lippo Memmi; but the little *tempera* painting by his brother-in-law, Simone Martini (signed and dated 1342), cannot fail to afford delight as well as to awaken interest. "Two surpassing painters have I known," said Petrarch; "Giotto, the Florentine, whose fame is great among the moderns, and Simone, of Siena." It was at the Court of the Popes at Avignon that the poet met Simone, and there he painted the portrait of Laura, described in more than one of the sonnets. During the painter's residence at Avignon he made the little Liverpool picture; and of all his smaller works it is not only the best preserved, but it is the one

that represents in highest perfection the lyrical beauty of the artist's thought. It shows us the boy Christ brought back by his father from among the Doctors to where the weary Virgin sits, reading for consolation in her Book of Devotion. But the charm of the little picture lies almost as much in the beautiful finish of the decorative adjuncts, the minute colored mouldings, the cusped canopy, the punctured halos of varied pattern on the gold ground, as in the graceful and expressive figures.

Of Giotto, likewise, the gallery possesses a reminiscence in the shape of certain portions of fresco, cut from the walls of the Carmine, at Florence, the year before the conflagration took place by which all except the famous Brancacci Chapel was destroyed. Vasari says that the frescoes were by Giotto, but it is not impossible that in this, as in so many other statements, Vasari was wrong. At all events these saved portions are judged, by common consent, to be the work of pupils, from the design of the master, perhaps, and, it may be, executed under his eye. The most pleasing of the pair represents a group of women holding baby John the Baptist, rolled up in a bundle; the dumb parent does not appear, but can be readily supplied by the imagination. Of two predella panels, from some altar-piece, one is obviously the handiwork of Fra Filippo Lippi himself, and represents an incident not without its charms for the romantic monk. A Bishop and a young lady sit together at a table eating and drinking; she, we are given to understand, has procured an invitation from him by certain unholy blandishments, and, indeed, the two black horns that find their way through her golden hair proclaim her character plainly enough to be the reverse of angelic. The pious Bishop is on the high road to ruin. Providentially, however, St. Andrew knocks at the door of the room, and the machinations of the fiend are brought to nought. In execution the work is most carefully done, the colors are tenderly handled and harmonious, and the most carnal spectator must admit that the expressions of the faces, especially that of the serving lad, are remarkably naïve. A bust portrait of a lady is interesting, because it was cut from the wall of the Riccardi Palace at Florence, and may well depict some member of the Medici family, who formerly dwelt there. As to its authorship there are various opinions, the name of Botticelli being mentioned, not without a show of reason.

The latest picture of importance, belonging to the Florentine school, is a Madonna and Child, undoubtedly by Luca Signorelli. It is not one of the best of the works of that powerful but unequal master, and, besides, it has been a good deal rubbed; nevertheless, it is instinct with the force and vigor which he never failed to manifest in every creation of his brush.

Far more beautiful is a predella panel painted with a "Birth of St. John Baptist," by the little-known but most accomplished Umbrian artist, Fiorenzo di Lorenzo. The execution possesses the qualities of patience and delicacy, and the design is marked by the felicity and tenderness that have rendered famous the panels which once formed the treasury doors of the Church of S. Francesco, and are now preserved in the gallery at Perugia. The women are of peculiarly sweet and affectionate type. Their drapery is gracefully arranged and harmoniously colored. The lights upon the folds are drawn in fine lines of gold with great good taste.

Of pictures belonging to the school of Siena in the fifteenth century, there are two worthy of note. The first of these, probably the work of Francesco di Giorgio, is a picture which has been much discussed by historians. It represents the "Preaching of St. Bernardino of

Siena," and contains the portraits, on a small scale, of several members of the Medici family. The figures are in many cases badly drawn and the buildings are in bad perspective; nevertheless the panel is of rare value, enabling us as it does to enter a mediæval church, and watch the behavior of a congregation listening to the words of a famous mediæval saint. Bernardino stands in the little four-legged pulpit he used to take about with him, and is in the act of displaying to the people one of his little tablets with the monogram I.H.S. The women are separated from the men by a curtain, which, however, is not too high to prevent a young dandy from taking up a good position of observation. Most of the people are kneeling before the little six-inch-high benches, which are all the sitting accommodation provided. The devout are not ashamed to give visible expression to their feelings, old ladies being particularly fervent. Many, both men and women, look about them and chatter, and some ladies who are just coming in, have all their attention concentrated on their own personal appearance. No attempt is made to keep the children in order. At the moment chosen by the painter, the preacher is pausing in his address, and trumpeters are blowing a blast to herald the entrance of the magnates of the town. The other Sienese picture is a "Madonna with Angels," probably by Matteo da Siena. The loving Virgin and her crouching babe, with the lily-bearing Gabriel and the reverently inquisitive little John, are fascinatingly grouped together, while the tasteful use of gold adds to the attractions of the well-combined colors. An excellent reproduction of this picture appeared in the *Portfolio* about two years ago.

The best represented of the Italian schools is undoubtedly the Venetian. Even in Venice such an altar-piece as the "St. Mark with Four Saints" is rare. It was painted by one of the earliest-settled Venetian artists, and belongs, properly speaking, to the school of Murano. The manner of the coloring is altogether that of the Umbrian Gentile da Fabriano, who for some years resided in Venice in the service of the town; the type of the figures, on the other hand, shows unmistakable traces of German influence. The picture is thus of great value, marking as it does the exact point of departure of true Venetian art, which united the strength of the North and the grace of the South to the rich coloring of the East. By Mantegna's marriage with the sister of Gentile and Giovanni Bellini, the influence of the learned and scientific school of Padua was brought to bear upon the rising artists of Venice; and it is probable that it was owing to this influence that the Bellini were enabled to overcome their rivals, the Vivarini, and thus to determine the line of development which led through Giorgione and Titian to Tintoret and Veronese. In such connection the presence of a finely-finished though rather damaged "Pietà," not indeed by Mantegna, but by his close imitator, Ercole Roberti di Antonio, is of especial interest. It shows, indeed, the influence of Giovanni Bellini, but the Paduan factor is so visible in it that it may well be taken (for want of a purer type) as an example of the Paduan element, which formed the final ingredient that went to make the Venetian school. A genuine and most excellent example of the work of Giovanni Bellini is a "Portrait of a Venetian Gentleman," duly signed and in good preservation. The rather weak brow of the youth is surmounted by a black cap of the shape fashionable at the day. He wears a black waistcoat and a cloak of dark green, bordering on black. The only bright color in the picture is the blue of the sky, with its white cumulus clouds; nevertheless there is a richness of tone and texture

about the whole that marks it unmistakably as the work of a great colorist. Giovanni's less important followers—Pietro degli Ingannati, Vincenzo Catena, and the like—are well represented but their pictures are of secondary importance. First rate, however, is the "Holy Family with St. Margaret in a Landscape," by one of the three Bonifazioes—probably by him called, in Morelli's now classical work, Bonifazio Veneziano. It is a beautiful human family, grouped happily together among the flowers, the prettiest young mother, and the sweetest of babes, who playfully lays a garland of flowers upon the glorious golden hair of kneeling Margaret. The child John would gladly join in the play, and the Virgin looks musingly toward him as he reaches forward. Pet goldfinches are on the marble base of a ruined column, and pet rabbits sit in solemn discussion on the grass. The whole is painted with perfect skill and perfect ease. A more ideal work it would be possible to find, but not one fuller of refinement, gentleness, and quiet joy.

But the Venetian painter best represented is Tintoret. The study for the "Paradise" in the Ducal Palace at Venice is alone worth a day's journey to see. At Paris and Madrid are other studies for the same great work, but the Liverpool canvas is the most important of them all, because in it the conception of Paradise as a solid sphere of seraph-borne blessed ones, ranged about the central glory, makes its first appearance. The sketch is wrought with wonderful speed and certainty of hand. It must have been begun and finished at a sitting. The colors are splashed in, yet no single touch of brush or finger has been directed by chance. Few forms are rendered, it may be, but every form is definite and true. Each figure and there are multitudes of them is recognizable and usually namable. Each face wears a definite expression. The whole is solidified by the master's extraordinary power in the handling of light, and animated by his unrivalled and almost terrific power. An "Entombment" (for the present in the meeting room of the Royal Institution in the building on the other side of the street) is a finished work by the same painter. It is one of the most powerful conceptions of the final scene of the great tragedy. The figures are in a mysterious half-light, grouped about the tomb, their attitudes expressive of long pressure of suffering, culminating in despair. A vague glimmer of pallid light strikes weirdly athwart the group and adds to the woeful aspect of the whole. Dark rocks shut them in behind, and a dark sky envelops them above, and from out the gloom emerge only the cold forms of painful death and more painful life. A "Last Judgment" professes to be the painter's study for the well-known colossal picture, in the Madonna del Orto at Venice (described not quite accurately in vol. ii. of "Modern Painters" and in the Venetian Index in "Stones of Venice"). It is really an early copy from that picture, but, owing to the present faded state of the original, its vast dimensions, and the dark position in which it hangs, the copy is of more than ordinary value to the student of Tintoret. A "Crucifixion," painted by some scholar of Paul Veronese, is founded on Tintoret's picture in S. Cassiano at Venice, and is not without charm. The "Finding of Moses" is likewise a tolerable work of Veronese's school.

Of pictures by Northern artists the collection contains no inconsiderable number, and one or two of them are worth notice. First in order comes a "Descent from the Cross," ascribed to Roger van der Weyden, and certainly by a painter of his school. The two thieves upon the wings are identical with those in a unique engraving of a "Descent" by the "master of 1464," preserved at Hamburg, the remainder of the

engraving being copied from Roger's "Descent" at Madrid. A large picture of one of the same thieves is in the museum at Frankfort, so it is not impossible that that may be one of the wings of the Madrid picture; it is, at all events, from the hand of Roger. Two very interesting panels belong to the early Westphalian school, and are undoubtedly the wings of a "Crucifixion" in the National Gallery, close beside which hangs another panel, evidently by the same master. The Liverpool panels represent various incidents in the Passion of Christ, painted in a coarse but powerfully dramatic manner. No gallery would be complete without its Cranach, and this possesses at any rate one (a "Venus"), and possibly a second in the form of a portrait of a middle-aged woman "got up" in very juvenile fashion, and smiling forever at the usually empty room. Hans Baldung Grün is represented by an "Age and Youth," and there are several more school pictures, both of German and Flemish origin. One of the most remarkable panels in the gallery is painted with a Madonna of very Milanese type, but in colors and with accessories that can only have come from the Low Countries. It is almost the only picture painted by a Northern artist under Italian influence that cannot be called a failure. The little naked smiling boy, nestling so happily against his mother's breast, is one of the most charming productions of any school or period. A beautifully finished portrait of Marguerite de Valois, sister of Francis I., can be none other than the handiwork of François Clouet, called "Janet," though it is usually assigned to Holbein. The rich stuffs of the lady's garments are painted with extraordinary care and skill; every detail is finished to the last point of perfection, and, though the subject is not an interesting or beautiful person, the painter has treated her with such genius that she cannot fail to attract the eye of even the most casual spectator.

Of later pictures of the schools of Rembrandt, Rubens, and other Dutch and Flemish painters, there are several worth seeing, though possibly not worth going to see. There are also meritorious specimens of the English school—a self-portrait by Reynolds's pupil and biographer, Northcote, for instance, and a series of some dozen or more cartoons by Romney—but these and the like the visitor will have no difficulty in discovering for himself, if the paintings mentioned above prove attraction enough to draw him, when next he passes through Liverpool, to the neglected Gallery of Art of the Royal Institution.

W. M. CONWAY.

Correspondence.

THE ISSUE OF PAPER MONEY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your recent criticism of the opinion expressed by Mr. Jackson Schultz, that the paper circulation of the country should be issued by the national Government instead of by private corporations, you cite as conclusive answers to the proposition, 1st, that to charge the Government with the duty of issuing paper currency is substantially to ask it to engage in the banking business on an immense scale; 2d, that the issue of paper money is left to the banks by all solvent governments, because it is only through the banks that the exact amount of paper needed by the country can be ascertained; 3d, that if the Government were to issue the paper money without doing a regular banking business of deposit and discount, the amount of circulation needed by the country would have to be determined either by Congress or by the Secretary of the Treasury.

I think I represent a large class of your readers willing to be enlightened on this subject, when I say that your arguments seem to me far from conclusive. The Government has been for years charged with the duty of issuing paper money, and now has about \$346,000,000 of it outstanding. If without "engaging in the banking business on an immense scale" it can issue that amount, why not \$376,000,000 more? Is it the amount of the issue which determines whether the Government is engaging in the banking business? If so, how are we to fix the point at which the issue ceases to be a legitimate function and becomes "engaging in the banking business on an immense scale"?

The most obvious answer to your second objection is, that the issue of paper money by the United States is the strongest possible evidence that at least one solvent government does not leave the issue of such money to the banks.

I think, too, you exaggerate the danger of allowing Congress to determine the amount of currency needed by the country. Until the amendment of the clause in the National Bank Law fixing the amount of the circulation, that question was under the control of Congress, and nevertheless the country was reasonably prosperous and made considerable progress in the payment of the national debt. Its determination will devolve upon Congress again when the bonded debt, and with it the national bank circulation, shall be extinguished. But as long as any portion of the bonded debt remains outstanding, the volume of the currency can be kept adjusted to the wants of the people by authorizing the Secretary of the Treasury either to anticipate the payment of bonds out of the surplus funds when that can be done to advantage (which is equivalent to saying when there is a demand for currency), or to loan the surplus funds upon the security of bonds deposited and bearing no interest during such deposit, which is substantially what is done now with the national banks—the principal practical difference being that the bonds deposited by the banks continue to draw interest. It is assumed that the demand for currency would never exceed the available surplus in the Treasury—an assumption which is justified by past experience.

The immediate advantage to the public at large to be derived from replacing the national bank notes with United States notes must be apparent to every one. In order to redeem their outstanding notes, the banks would be obliged to surrender their bonds to that amount, the United States would save more than \$11,000,000 annually in interest, and a number of offices would be rendered unnecessary. And all this would be effected without either inflation or contraction of the currency, and without any appreciable disturbance of values. When such an opportunity is offered to any government, stronger arguments than those advanced by you ought to be required to induce it to forego it.

J. CHAMBERLAIN.

BALTIMORE, January 18, 1884.

[In the first place, the Government never was, and is not now, "charged with the duty of issuing paper money." Its paper money now in circulation was issued for the purpose of making a forced loan in time of war, and the amount issued was determined solely by the needs of the Treasury. The greenbacks are, in other words, simply unredeemed promissory notes. In the second place, the Government can issue \$1,000,000,000 greenbacks if it likes, but it cannot, we hold, make them legal tenders. But issuing them would not

"be engaging in the banking business on an immense scale," inasmuch as the banking business consists in the receipt of money on deposit, and the lending of it to traders and others on interest. The issue of notes is not an essential part of the banking business. In the third place, the existence of the national banks is proof that this Government also does leave the issue of paper money to the banks, inasmuch as the national bank bills are the only paper money now in the country issued simply and solely as currency. In the fourth place, the extent of the danger to be apprehended from leaving the amount of the currency in the control of Congress, is, of course, as yet matter of opinion, and is only deducible from the past dealings of Congress with the currency, and from principles of human nature, and the experience of other countries. As a matter of fact, legislative power over the volume of the currency has always been abused in times of trouble.—ED. NATION.]

CHINESE AND ITALIANS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: If your correspondent, Mr. S. B. Wiggin, is justified in his belief that "no man ever heard any Californian propose a restriction of Italian immigration," although all Californians approve the restriction of Chinese immigration, Californians must discriminate with much more nicety than New Yorkers. For there are certainly many people in this State who would like to see both Chinese and Italian immigration prohibited—probably one-third of the voters of New York city would.

Many Italian laborers came to this place some two years ago to work on the West Shore Railroad and on the Amsterdam City Water Works. They were as a class industrious, sober, and very frugal, many of them eating little besides bread. But the sight of their industry and frugality was to some of our citizens the reverse of edifying. Italian industry and frugality were associated in the minds of those citizens with a low standard of living; and a low standard of living they look upon with that solemn disapproval which Mr. Arnold would think appropriate to their own low standard of morals and manners.

One day there was a squad of twenty or thirty Italians digging in one of our principal streets. There were some half-dozen English-speaking laborers looking on. As I was passing I heard one of these remark: "They're not like men at all; they're worse than the Chinese." The others agreed in a chorus. I stopped and looked to see what the matter was with the Italians. They were good-looking and able-bodied and were working hard; and yet they were not oppressed by their work, as was shown by their occasionally joking, laughing, and singing snatches of some ditty. It was quite clear that there was nothing the matter with them that these on-looking laborers were capable of discerning. The matter simply was that the Italians were there. Either of these English-speaking laborers would undoubtedly second a proposal for the restriction of Italian immigration. Probably no one of them ever "proposed" anything in his life.

J. C. COZENS.

AMSTERDAM, N. Y., January 28, 1884.

PACIFIC COAST VIEW OF THE CHINESE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It is an endless, as well as a thankless, task to answer the attacks upon the Chinese by California writers, for the reason that they dis-

dain evidence, and readvance refuted reasons or arguments as if they never had been met. Nevertheless, it is worth while to say a word now and then; for, though they succeed in obtaining foolish and unjust laws, we can at least keep them in mind of the fact that they have not gained the moral support of the rest of the nation.

Your contributor in the *Nation* of January 24, Mr. Samuel Bradley Wiggin, who considers his Eastern opponents "hide-bound fanatics," is evidently himself a fanatic of the first water. He hesitates at no extreme in his description of the Chinaman; he believes in no arguments in his favor. Yet he must have at hand abundant evidence contradicting every statement that he makes. He can find in any library, and in a great many houses of San Francisco, Mr. George F. Seward's book on 'Chinese Immigration,' giving the testimony of hundreds of reliable, intelligent people, collected by the State, proving the Chinese to be industrious and frugal in every true sense (Mr. Wiggin's observation, whatever it may mean), of good general habits, and, moreover, what may surprise him, cleanly as compared to the average Californian.

As to infanticide, he had only to be at the pains to inquire of any respectable and intelligent Chinaman (and there are plenty in San Francisco), and he would have received indubitable proof that destruction of female children is as uncommon among the Chinese of that city as among any other of its inhabitants. Probably he and his Eastern friend could not discriminate between boys and girls in Chinese dress. To them they would look alike. But, in any case, it would not be surprising to any but a monomaniac that the majority of the children in the streets should be boys. Yet on that slender suggestion, fortified by the extorted and probably half-understood admission of some irresponsible shopman, intent on conciliation, Mr. Samuel Bradley Wiggin makes an assertion to the whole American public which he should be ashamed on such evidence to whisper to his wife.

I have lately been living in California, and I did not find the unanimity against the Chinese which he represents. Every man that held an office, and every man that hoped to run for an office (and the latter class is unhappily uncommonly numerous in the State), and every man of the loafing class, whether he wore broadcloth or homespun, was indeed dead against John Chinaman. Those who had nothing to expect from the voters, and who aimed to advance their fortunes by industry, temperance, and frugality, were oftener in his favor than against him. But, as everybody knows, there are enough of the latter class united with those of the former, and aided by the activity of the anti-Chinese politicians, to carry the State against the Chinese with an apparent unanimity. There is no pretence of fair dealing in the public discussion of the subject, which no doubt in part accounts for this appearance of unity. The leading San Francisco papers will not publish an article on the Chinese side, or would not while I was in the country. I know of instances where the attempt was made in vain.

As for relative habits and morals, not to speak of the abundant evidence in favor of the Chinese in Mr. Seward's book, I know of household servants who, after the continuous and faithful labor of the day, walked four miles into town to attend an evening school, returning at midnight to be up and at work again by six in the morning. On the other hand, I saw in one of the best up-town streets of San Francisco two boys of ten and twelve, pinks of respectability, with gold watch-chains and shirt-

studs, throwing pieces of brick and stone at a respectable Chinese house-servant who was walking in front of them, he vainly remonstrating. There were but few people in sight, but those few paid no attention other than to bestow a benignant smile upon the boys. I ventured also to remonstrate, and as I suggested a visit to a police station, and stood by until the Chinaman turned the corner, the amusement terminated for that time. Who corrupted the sense of right in those young gentlemen? Not Chinamen.

Mr. Samuel Bradley Wiggin's views about the Italians are an amusing commentary on his anti-Chinese sentiments. They also, it seems, are industrious and frugal, and undersell the lord of the land; but Mr. Wiggin naively consoles himself by reflecting that the Italian has a family, and he has "faith to believe that his children will be an improvement on their father," i. e., less industrious and frugal, since that is the only charge he has against them.—Your obedient servant,

EDWARD CUNNINGHAM.

MILTON, MASS., January 20, 1884.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: If you will allow me I would like to comment on an anti-Chinese letter published in the last number of the *Nation*. I will pass over the references to the Chinese as paupers and as coolies, and to the opinion expressed that they are not frugal, nor industrious, nor cleanly. I will take the writer at his word—that the conclusive argument against the Chinaman is that he does not come here to stay; that he must return to China, alive or dead. After learning from the writer of the many revolting characteristics of the Chinaman, one is disposed to think that the one redeeming feature of his immigration is, that he does not come here to stay. Now I do not like to see the good people of the Pacific coast grieve over the loss of their detested, yet beloved, John. I think I can show them where they may look for consolation, and find it. I think when John migrates here (if he has a chance) a little longer, that he will come here to stay. I think that his desire to return is one that is common to humanity, and one that, after a while, would be gotten over.

As evidence of this I will mention the Chinese immigration to Java, to Malacca, and to Burmah, which has been going on for a much longer time than the immigration to America. To these places John goes; in them he raises his family, dies, and is buried. This shows that there is no necessity about his returning to China, and that probably with a little study of the Chinese character, and a little tact, he could be induced to stay in this country. Allow me to suggest that this little tact does not consist in annoying him, insulting him, nor even in mobbing him. The good people of the coast seem to have assumed that as he is so opposite to us in most things, a decidedly opposite way of treating him would be most likely to give them the result they are so anxious for, viz: that John should make his permanent home with them. But this is a mistake, surprising as it may seem, and I would recommend our friends to study the Chinese immigration to other countries to find out both how to get him and how to keep him.

C. R. C.

CHICAGO, January 28, 1884.

"UNEARNED INCREMENT" AND SHRINKAGE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: On page 45 of the current volume of the *Nation*, you justly say:

"No discussion of our land problem will be complete which does not show how the shrinkage"—i. e., the shrinkage in values—"as well as the increment, is to be dealt with."

It is due to the author of the phrase "unearned increment," or of its equivalent, "unearned increase"—the late Mr. John Stuart Mill—to say that he did not overlook this point. Section 4 of the "Programme" put forward in 1870 by the English Land Tenure Reform Association, of which Mr. Mill was President, proposes—

"To claim for the benefit of the state the interception by taxation of the future unearned increase of the rent of land (so far as the same can be ascertained), or a great part of that increase, which is continually taking place without any effort or outlay by the proprietors, merely through the growth of population and wealth; reserving to owners the option of relinquishing their property to the state at the market value which it may have acquired at the time when this principle may be adopted by the Legislature."

In a paper explaining this "Programme"—vide pp. 225 et seq. of the fifth volume of "Dissertations and Discussions," published in 1875 by Henry Holt & Co.—Mr. Mill supplements the words which I have italicized by saying that owners who may not turn their lands over to the state when the proposed system of taxation shall be put in force, "should be allowed at any future period to alter their minds and give up their lands for the price first offered, or more, if they can show that they have made, during the intervening period, substantial improvements at their own cost." He adds: "The option thus allowed would be a permanent security to the land-owners against any unjust or excessive exercise of the right of taxation by the state." That it would guarantee the land-owner against the risk of loss through shrinkage, as an offset to depriving him of the chance of gain through unearned increase of value, is, of course, apparent.

It is, perhaps, hardly necessary to remark that the phrase "unearned increase of value" just used is substantially equivalent to the phrase "unearned increase of rent," since the selling value and the rental value alike depend on the amount of income that can be derived from the land. As the word rent is used by Mr. Mill in its scientific sense, "unearned increase in the rent of land" would, of course, include unearned increase of rental value where the land is occupied by the owner, as well as unearned increase of actual rent—in the popular sense of the word—in cases where the land is occupied by a tenant.

It may be worth while to note the fact that, whatever may have been the case with building land in the cities and towns of Great Britain and Ireland, a considerable part of the farming land of the kingdom has fallen in value since the time when the "Programme" above referred to was put forth; and that, under the operation of the plan then advocated by Mr. Mill, the state would probably have had a good deal of land thrown on its hands at more than its present market value. How far the losses to which, for a time at least, it would thus have been subjected would, during the same time, have been overbalanced by the revenues from unearned increase, I shall not attempt to estimate; but the net gain to the public treasury, and through it to the people, would doubtless have been considerably less than Mr. Mill anticipated.

The truth is, that it is in a new and rapidly-growing country, like the United States, that the plan advocated by Mr. Mill would produce its largest results. The depreciation of farming land in Great Britain—so far as such depreciation has actually taken place—was due in considerable part to the cheapening of transporta-

tion between the Atlantic ports of the United States and the grain fields of the Northwest, which increased the activity of American competition in British markets; but this is a cause from which the American land-owner gained in about the same degree as the British land-owner lost. A certain amount of unearned increase of value was simply transferred from British land to American land.

There are, of course, many instances of "shrinkage" of value, even in this country. This is especially the case in periods of great business depression, such as that which followed the panic of 1873; but even in times of prosperity, miscalculations are often made as to the destiny of particular tracts of land, and speculation carries prices to a pitch that cannot be maintained, making more or less shrinkage inevitable. In the main, however, the course of land values is rapidly upward, and is destined to be so for a long time to come, unless events as unlooked for as another glacial period, or as a collision with a comet, shall occur to prevent it.

But while it is in new countries, rapidly increasing in population and wealth, like the United States and some of the British colonies, that "unearned increase in the rent of land"—I use the word "rent" in its technical scientific sense—is most strikingly manifested, and is most rapidly enriching one part of the population at the expense of another part; and while it is in such countries that a system of taxation like that advocated by Mr. Mill would be most effective, it is precisely in such countries that there is the least inclination to adopt any measure of radical land reform, for their statesmen seem to be imbued with the conviction that it will be all in good time to lock the stable door when the horse shall have been stolen.

EDWARD T. PETERS.

WASHINGTON, D. C., January 29, 1884.

GREEK OR BARBARIAN?

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: You have very properly remarked that students who do not succeed in Greek at our colleges are not likely to succeed any better in French or German. I think the remark an important one, and the only one that can be in fairness taken against the well-known argument of Mr. Charles Francis Adams, jr. There is, however, something more to be said on the subject, which, as far as I know, has not been alluded to by any of the numerous writers who have taken up the defence of Greek against the threatening inroads of the barbarians. If it be true that a poor scholar in Greek would very likely have been just as poor in French and German, it is true for the reason that a modern language thoroughly studied is about as difficult as an ancient one, and that, hence, as much or nearly as much time should be allowed for the study of the one as of the other. Dr. Peabody, in an article in the *Atlantic*, greatly errs in thinking it possible that a student who gives most of his time and attention to Latin and Greek may learn German and French in odd hours, by a purely conversational or similar method.

I have taught German and French for over twenty years to collegiate classes, and have been a devoted and fairly successful student of ancient and modern languages for well nigh forty years, but during all this time I have never met a case like the one considered possible by Dr. Peabody. To learn German well requires fully as much time as to learn Latin well. It takes far less time to learn to read French, but to gain a fair mastery in writing and speaking French would require more time,

in my opinion, than is devoted to Greek in our best colleges.

It will doubtless be said that it is not the object of the college to teach anything thoroughly—except the ancient languages! I have no quarrel with those who believe this, but I insist on their stating the fact. Four years are a brief time to obtain something more than a smattering of three or four languages. The testimony of the most competent judges—for instance, President Barnard, also the late Edward Lasker, and many presidents of German gymnasia—seems to have established the fact that even Latin and Greek are not well learned during the time now devoted to their study; and who has ever heard of any one really gaining more than a superficial knowledge of a modern language, in addition to his Latin and Greek, during that time? The knowledge of French possessed by a German Gymnasium graduate is more than modest, and not much better than the knowledge of a modern language possessed by our own graduates of the A.B. course. Would it not, under these circumstances, be wise to adopt two courses of study in our colleges, one emphasizing the modern, the other the ancient, languages? The State Universities of Michigan, Iowa, and others have done so, and Cornell at Ithaca also. I feel quite sure, from actual experience, that such an arrangement would prove satisfactory, because it would leave the classical side a chance to prove their superiority as educators of the "whole man," and enable the other side to give a thorough training in the modern branches. The Latin, all or most of it, might be retained in the latter course, as it actually is in the institutions named.

Those who think that the Berlin test, as applied to the Realschule students, was decisive, and who on this account oppose the plan here suggested, should bear in mind that the Prussian Realschule has to contend with a peculiar difficulty, viz.: that of not being considered the equal of the Gymnasium. If, indeed, this prejudice were well founded, it would not prove anything against the training in modern languages, but against an insufficient amount of such training. The Prussian Realschule requires 84 hours (the weekly average for the course) of languages, while the Gymnasium requires 126 hours. Of its 84 hours, the former gives one-half to Latin, and divides the other half between French and English. The remainder—42 hours—is devoted by the Realschule to additional mathematics (50 per cent. more than the Gymnasium allows) and to several sciences.* It follows that the Berlin test rather condemns the deficiency of language in general, or else the preponderance of mathematics and science, but not the training in modern languages, if made just as long and complete as the training in the ancient languages furnished by the Gymnasium.

One word in regard to the educational value of modern languages. Prof. Max F. Müller, of Oxford, claims that this value is fully equal to that of the ancient tongues, leaving literature out of consideration. Professor Whitney, of Yale, emphasizes the importance of the study of languages next of kin to the English, as a natural basis for comparative philology. Both gentlemen rank high as philologists, are sincere friends of classical culture, and speak from a vast experience. Doctor Peabody, to whom I have referred, claims superiority for the Greek

*Some time ago I was corrected by one of your contributors for having claimed equality in the amount of Latin required by the Realschule and Gymnasium. The writer gave the requirements of the Saxon Realschule, which is lower than that of the Prussian. I was nevertheless in error in claiming equality; the real proportion is as above stated. (See Wiese, "Das höhere preussische Schulwesen.")

as a training for literary purposes, and asserts that he can tell from the style of an article whether the writer has had Greek training or not. I have some doubts about this. The fact is, most writers of some standing necessarily have had a classical education, for the simple reason that most of them are graduates of colleges, which until recently have recognized no other. Nevertheless, we may find a few good writers who built their high culture on a different foundation, and gained their fine diction in another school. If there were a Shakspeare among us, would Doctor Peabody miss the Greek stamp on his writings? Or would he think less of Dante, Schiller, Burns, because these great poets were innocent of Greek? Would he, as an editor, refuse contributions from a Herbert Spencer, a John Bright, a Professor Tyndal? Until proof is furnished that these men would have been still better writers if their early education had included Greek, Doctor Peabody must not expect us to attach very much value to his assertions.

C. A. EGGERT.

IOWA CITY, January 29, 1884.

THE DECLINE OF LAISSEZ-FAIRE IN ENGLAND.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: During the reading of the acute and interesting observations of Mr. Dicey in the *Nation* of January 10 and 17, upon the present tendency in England to make more and more use of the agency of the Government in effecting social reform, as contrasted with the strong laissez-faire notions of thirty years ago, it has occurred to me that a strong and interesting evidence of this alteration is presented by the change wrought since that time in English public opinion upon the history of England in the seventeenth century. This is shown not only in the case of the royalist party in general, but especially in the case of Wentworth. A revulsion of feeling has occurred in favor of the party, and especially of the statesman, who wished to gather power into the hands of the Government, to be used for the accomplishment of great internal reforms. It cannot be supposed that this is owing chiefly to Mr. Gardiner's researches, but rather that the change in the current of public opinion as to governmental action in the present has, to borrow a metaphor from electricity, induced a current in public opinion upon the action of Government in the past.

It seems to me, too, that the increase which Mr. Dicey notices, between 1850 and 1880, in the prominence given to sympathy in English social and political thought, is similarly reflected in the contrast between the characteristic nineteenth-century histories of the two periods—between Macaulay's narrowness of sympathy and the broad and impartial appreciativeness which, aside from its scholarship, is the distinctive merit of Mr. Gardiner's great work.

J. F. JAMESON.

BALTIMORE, January 27, 1884.

AN INDEX WANTED.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It is a matter of surprise and regret to students of English literature that no volume of the series of English Men of Letters has yet been indexed. Facts relating to one of a group of contemporary writers have to be traced through several volumes of the series. To find all that is said on Burke, one must read the volumes on Johnson, Goldsmith, and Gibbon. This work is easy and pleasant enough for awhile; but one's energy sometimes flags after searching for

a single fact through the 6,000 pages of the series. Every careful student will partially index his books for himself, but every such student would regard a complete index of this series as a valuable addition to his library.

W. E. MEAD.

ANSONIA, CONN., February 1, 1884.

DR. CLEVENGER AND THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Holding Professor Olson's communication before a mirror, or inverting it, neither adds to nor detracts from its lucidity. His well-known familiarity with the classics affords him a scope of expression often quite felicitous, and enables him upon occasion to be diplomatic—abilities the genial Professor, whom everybody likes, would value less were his acquisitions less classic and more scientific.

I felt pained to think he should have thought it necessary to imply so much in saying so little. It is of little consequence that the club held its meetings in the University, and that its proper title is University Club of Chicago and not Chicago University Club. For that matter, according to the Douglas heirs, there is no Chicago University or University of Chicago. They claim that the Senator deeded the land upon which the University was built, with the stipulation that the University should be called by his name.

The chair in question, according to the catalogues, was not vacant; but as Professor Dexter has not delivered a lecture at the University for some years, and as the suggestion of my appointment was made after that gentleman had brought suit against the University, it is safe to assume that the chair in reality was unfilled, except so far as Professor Bastin could spare time from teaching zoology, botany, chemistry, physics, mineralogy, and geology, to fill it.

Professor Olson was President of the University Club at the time the Darwinistic lecture in question was delivered, and, as he may remember, interested himself with Professors Bastin and Garrison in consulting the President of the University concerning my appointment; and that activity in that direction was suddenly ended immediately after the lecture was delivered, even though before this the President had made an appointment to call upon me concerning the chair. Another member of the Faculty told me that, as my evolutionary views clashed with those taught in other departments of the University, the President reconsidered the matter of appointing me. I understood that Professor Bastin resigned owing to similar intimations concerning the effects of his teachings. The well-known Baptist affiliations of the University are incompatible with evolution, but not with involution.

As to the martyrdom alluded to, probably the necessity for bringing suit to recover professorial salaries would make the incumbency of, and not the failure to obtain, the chair a sacrifice.

This ends my share in the controversy, no matter what may be published hereafter.—Respectfully,
S. V. CLEVENGER.

CHICAGO, February 1, 1884.

THE THEORIES OF ORE DEPOSITS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Permit me to endeavor to correct, as far as possible in the space allowed, some of the statements contained in the review of 'The Geology of Wisconsin,' in the *Nation* for January 24. I refer to the nearly two columns devoted to the ore deposits, in which it seems to me your

critic has done injustice to a number of scientific men.

The view that the copper of the Lake Superior region was originally finely disseminated through the igneous rocks has been advocated by Müller (1856), Bauerman (1866), Marvin (1873), Wadsworth (1880), and others. That it was locally concentrated through the agency of permeating atmospheric waters has been held by Foster and Whitney (1850), Rottermund (1856), Müller (1856), J. W. Dawson (1857), Hunt (1863), Bauerman (1866), Pompelly (1871), Marvin (1873), Wadsworth (1880), and others. That the copper was originally a portion of the material from which the lavas were formed has been advocated, if not by others, at least by Wadsworth, who, after summarizing the views of others, gave in 1880 a theory in all essential points identical with Chamberlin's.

It was held by Whitney, in 1854, that the lead and zinc deposits were from aqueous solutions, and that the gases originating from the decomposing organic matter in the beds influenced the precipitation. In 1860, after giving sufficient evidence to show that the ores were extracted from the ocean during the Trenton Period, Whitney stated his belief that the cause of that extraction was the decomposition of the immense amount of organic matter in the beds and the hydrogen sulphide yielded by them; and that the finely divided ores thus scattered through the formation were later concentrated by the percolating waters. Pompelly and Hunt later advocated the same view, and added to it the theory that organic bodies, in the process of growth, stored up metals in their tissues, while later, through their decomposition, these metals were deposited in the forming strata. Pompelly accounted for the localization by ocean currents and *sargasso seas*, and held that the metals were leached into the sea from older formations. Shaler, in 1877, summarized these views, and thus presented a theory almost identical with Chamberlin's.

I claim, then, that your critic is unjust to others in stating that all theories previous to Chamberlin's are unsatisfactory while his is satisfactory, when others had previously advanced the same views. Your critic is mistaken in his statement that Whitney regarded the Archæan rocks as the distant source of the metals; and in attributing to Chamberlin the original idea of the theory of ore deposits given in your columns. The mode of presentation and certain details of local application alone seem to be original with Chamberlin, and although he was not as careful as he should have been to give credit to others, the injustice done in the review seems to be the fault of your critic, whoever he may be, rather than of any one else.

I have written this not to endorse any theory, but simply to see justice done.—Yours very respectfully,
M. E. WADSWORTH.

MUSEUM OF COMPARATIVE ZOOLOGY,
CAMBRIDGE, MASS., February 4, 1884.

Notes.

G. P. PUTNAM'S SONS announce for their spring publications 'The History of the Discoveries of America to the Year 1525,' by Arthur James Weise; 'Prehistoric America,' by the Marquis de Nadaillac, translated by "N. D'Anvers," and furnished with a preface by Prof. F. W. Putnam; Anton Gindely's 'History of the Thirty Years' War,' translated by Prof. Andrew Ten Broeck; 'The Book of the Beginnings,' a familiar study of Genesis, by the Rev. R. Heber Newton; 'Bible Characters,' by the late Rev. Alexander D. Mercer, D.D., with a memoir; 'The Words of Christ, considered as Principles of Per-

sonal and Social Growth,' by President John Bascom, of the University of Wisconsin; 'By Ways of Nature and Life,' by Clarence Deming; 'The Early Spanish Masters,' by Emily W. Washburn; 'The True Theory of the Sun,' by Thomas Bassnett; 'The Unity of Nature,' by the Duke of Argyll; 'Politics,' an introduction to the study of comparative constitutional law, by Wm. W. Crane and Bernard Moses; 'The Elements of Political Economy,' by Prof. Emile de Laveleye, translated by Alfred W. Pollard; a new edition of the 'World's Progress'; and a new (the "Stuyvesant") edition of Irving's Works, in seven volumes, large 12mo, at a cheap price.

Charles Scribner's Sons have in press, or in preparation, 'Peter the Great,' by Eugene Schuyler, of which the magazine-reading public have already had a foretaste, and which will be illustrated by a very large number of engravings and a special map of European Peter's time; 'Creation; or, the Biblical Cosmogony in the Light of Modern Science,' by Prof. Arnold Guyot; 'The Creoles of Louisiana,' by Geo. W. Cable, illustrated; 'The Question of Ships,' by Lieut. J. D. J. Kelley, U. S. N.; and 'Dr. Johns' and 'Bound Together—A Scent of Papers,' in the uniform edition of the works of Donald G. Mitchell. The same house will be the American publishers of the 'Life of Frederick Denison Maurice,' by his son.

'Darwinism Stated by Darwin Himself' is the title of a volume of selections from the writings of the great naturalist, by Professor Nathan Sheppard, to be published by D. Appleton & Co. They will also add to their Parchment Paper Series 'Pictures of English Society,' by George Du Maurier, taken from *Punch*.

Following Part I. of the first volume of the Philological Society's great 'Dictionary of the English Language' (A to An), Macmillan & Co. will issue 'The Cup and the Falcon,' a new drama, by Lord Tennyson, and this poet's works in a new popular edition, in one volume.

F. W. Christern has received the prospectus of a great undertaking on the part of the Paris house of Victor Palmé. This is nothing less than a reproduction in facsimile of the 'Concilium Collectio' of Joannes Dominicus Mansi, which was published at Florence and Venice in the period 1759-1798, and is now practically unobtainable at any price, though it is the standard work of reference for the leading historians of the day. The reprint will be sold only by subscription, and only as a whole, embracing thirty-one volumes. These will appear at the rate of one every two months, and will be provided with a general index.

'Le Gendre de M. Poirier' of MM. Émile Augier and Jules Sandeau has been published out of turn in Mr. Wm. R. Jenkins's 'Théâtre Contemporain,' owing to the circumstance of this comedy's having been selected for a text-book at Columbia College.

It is not a little difficult to find anything new and true to say about Cavendish's 'Laws and Principles of Whist,' the fourteenth edition of which has just been published (London: De La Rue; New York: Scribner & Welford). He who gives his days and nights to the study of Cavendish will surely avoid that desolate old age which Talleyrand seemed to dread more than any punishment in the world to come. A word of praise is due to the care with which are printed in red and black the "hands" of the various illustrative games and coups.

The appearance of 'A Latter Day Saint,' the first volume in the "American Novel Series" of Henry Holt & Co., seems to mark a distinct stage in the change and evolution of American publishing consequent on the starting of the cheap "libraries" and the break-up of the courtesies of the trade. The new series is sub-

stantially uniform with the admirable "Leisure Hour Series," perhaps the best collection of foreign fiction ever issued by any American publisher. Devoted at first wholly to reprints, it was a long while before an American novel was admitted into the "Leisure Hour Series," and the first intruder, "Democracy," did not have many followers nor any as successful. But as English fiction is driven almost entirely out of American magazines, so is it dropping out of the lists of the regular publishers, who cannot (or care not to) compete with the Pirates' Own Library. Running down a catalogue of the "Leisure Hour Series," we noticed that it has contained eighty-eight volumes by British authors, thirty-two by Germans, sixteen by Americans, ten by Frenchmen, seven by a Russian (Turgeneff), and one by a Scandinavian (Bjornson).

Mr. Geo. Cary Eggleston's summary review of "Our Twenty-one Presidents," in the February number of the *Magazine of American History*, deserved portrait illustrations somewhat more *recherché* than have been allowed it. Dr. Cyrus Thomas's brief paper on the "Houses of the Mound Builders" is a very clear and convincing presentation of the evidence justifying the belief that these houses were very perishable structures of reeds or timber and clay. Prof. Edward E. Salisbury begins a valuable genealogical account of the Griswold Family of Connecticut. In the current instalment of the well-edited original secret record of private daily intelligence for Sir Henry Clinton, some fresh and interesting testimony is adduced affecting the loyalty of Gen. Sullivan.

The *Platonist*, "an exponent of the Philosophic Truth," edited by Thomas M. Johnson, and published at Orange, N. J., has just entered upon its second volume, despite its ungainly form and the popular prejudice against Greek.

The "Portraits of American Fishes," twenty in number, recently issued by the *American Angler*, a journal doing efficient work in the cause of fish protection, are praiseworthy as giving a good idea of the outlines of our most common salt and fresh-water fishes. Beyond this we can say little in their favor, though great accuracy is claimed in the delineation of the exact number of the fin rays, and even the scales on the gill covers of subjects. The engraving and printing are so poor that the plates are unattractive, and the impression they make at first sight unfavorable.

Frang & Co. are early in the field of St. Valentine with a series of luxurious *billets doux et beaux*, silk-fringed and verse-tipped. The subjects of the illustrations are rather in traditional accord with the Old World than the New, and the love-making of two English sparrows, which is the theme of the most successful of them, is not apropos of our 14th of February. Another, with a girl gathering apple-blossoms, is too remote for anything but dreams; but love, flowers, and birds go together there.

We receive from Mr. J. A. S. Monks a charming etching—sheep in a rolling pasture, a work full of good qualities and promise of even better. It is simple and large in composition, with a fine sense of the picturesque in choice of subject, and firm and direct in execution.

Up to the present time three numbers of the Proceedings of the Society for Psychical Research in England have been published. An extensive collection of all literature in any way connected with the debatable phenomena designated by such terms as "mesmeric," "psychical," and "spiritualistic," is being made. The fullest reports yet rendered are on thought transference, and the phenomena they describe certainly seem most extraordinary. A girl of seventeen is placed outside a locked door with a member of the committee to observe her closely. Within

are her two younger sisters and other members of the committee. The latter select at random a card from a pack, and show it to the younger girls, who keep their minds intently fixed on it, when the name of it is called out, quite often correctly, by the girl without—in one case correctly fourteen times consecutively, where the chances against being right were 4,782,000. In another series of experiments simple figures, not easy to describe in words, are chosen, and a gentleman called in from another room who fixes the given outline intently in his mind. He is then led into a chamber and stationed behind, and within a few feet of, but not touching, a "sensitive" young man. After a few minutes of intense concentration on the part of the former, the latter takes up a pencil and draws a rough sketch of the figure. Many of the originals and copies are given. All who have seen these experiments, we are told, are fully convinced.

Hachette & Co. publish a second edition of the 'Manuel de Philologie Classique,' by Solomon Reinach, one of the most brilliant and scholarly of that corps of archaeologists trained by France in the school at Athens, and whose graduates have traversed the whole field of classical archaeology with a scientific enthusiasm which no hardship or even the fear of death (which has occasionally occurred among them) has ever checked. This volume is encyclopedic in its comprehension of all that is necessary to elementary knowledge of philology and archaeology; an indispensable handbook for the student of the latter. It treats not only of philology pure and simple, but bibliography, epigraphy, palæography, the history of ancient art, numismatics (with careful indication of the method of recognizing false coins), comparative grammar of the Sanskrit, Greek and Latin, political and literary history of antiquity, music, measure in poetry, and the antique customs as revealed by literature and art, with a résumé of mythology. It forms a closely printed volume of 414 pages, including thirty-four pages of index—a marvel of condensation.

— "W. B. B." writes us:

"Your correspondent 'J.' suggests an index to *Niles' Register*. I beg leave to say that *Niles' Register* is included in the list of periodicals indexed by Poole in his 'Index to Periodical Literature,' which can be seen at any of the public libraries in New York city."

True; but this is not the kind of indexing our correspondent had in mind. Poole's does not supply the place of any special index, though in default of any it is of course invaluable.

—The series of lectures which Dr. Brehm, the distinguished German naturalist and traveller, is delivering in this city, does not receive on the part of our daily press the attention which the position of Dr. Brehm, as well as the intrinsic merit of the lectures themselves, deserves, and which, we are glad to notice, they meet with at the hands of our German public. Dr. Brehm, to whose 'Thierleben' we have often had occasion to refer in these columns, is in his own country second in popularity to no contemporary scientific writer, and as a lecturer it would be difficult to find his superior anywhere. No one who heard his discourses on "A Journey in Siberia" and "The Fauna of the Primeval Forest," could fail to be impressed with his eloquent delivery, abounding in exquisite bits of word-painting, such as his description of the awaking of spring in the Khirgiz steppe; the crossing of the river Pishma, in Southwestern Siberia, on floating ice perforated by the natives and held together by stout rope; an epidemic among reindeer herds in the dreary country of the Ostiaks, or the aspect of the forest scenery of Abyssinia. Dr. Brehm will deliver three more lectures at Steinway Hall, on "The

Fauna of the Tundra" and "The Pagan Ostiaks," "Character Sketches of the Ape Family," and "Colonists and Exiles in Siberia."

—Sir Lepel Griffin's rather priggish article on "Philistia," in the January *Fortnightly*, has been received with great good humor on this side of the Atlantic, which proves that Americans have made some advance toward a state of mental equipoise since the time of Mrs. Trollope. We say priggish, because a writer who begins with the expression of a grave doubt whether Christopher Columbus conferred a blessing or a curse upon the civilized portion of the human race by discovering America, must be set down as a literary prig, however meritorious may have been his services in other departments of activity. Very droll, too, is Sir Lepel's self-examination upon the question whether he is really justified in delivering the opinions which a two months' sojourn in the United States have enabled him to form. The fly on the ox's horn took an equally serious view of his responsibilities. Having settled this matter in favor of entire frankness, he sets forth with a long quotation from the *New York World*, in the style of Mr. Jefferson Brick, illustrating in a rough way, perhaps, but nevertheless truly, the ideas entertained by "the most amiable and intelligent Americans" in respect of their own grandiose future, and the humiliation in store for the bloated aristocracies of the Old World. That this is the real spirit of America is made all the more certain to him by his perusal of "one of the latest and most pleasing American books, entitled 'An American Four-in-hand in Britain,' by Mr. Andrew Carnegie." While Americans hold the most unfavorable views of the destiny of Europe generally, they entertain a perfectly brimstone feeling toward England. Their dislike of Englishmen is, however, easily accounted for, because, according to Sir Lepel, the English are "almost the most disagreeable race extant." With this fine touch of impartiality he goes on to show that it is one of the reigning fallacies of the day to suppose that American women are good-looking. They are, on the contrary, extremely plain and ill-favored, except when one approaches the Canadian line, where an intermixture with the fine blood of the north has brought in a streak of comeliness. This is especially noticeable at Detroit, which is famed among American cities for its beautiful women. Lord Coleridge's compliment to American women for their beauty and intelligence transcended, in Sir Lepel's opinion, the ordinary bounds of after-dinner gush. Indeed, the Chief Justice's opinions of America and Americans generally have had a depressing effect upon Sir Lepel, causing him to doubt the independence of the Judiciary. "A Chief Justice," he says, "should speak only from the bench." Sir Lepel attended one of Mr. Matthew Arnold's lectures, and went to the theatre to see how Mr. Irving and Miss Terry were appreciated by New York audiences. He found Mr. Arnold a total failure as a lecturer, because nobody could hear him, and nobody could have understood him if they had been able to hear. Mr. Irving made a mistake in producing the play of "Charles I." in New York, because the Americans, "although ignorant of history, still vaguely associate Cromwell with liberty and the Stuarts with persecution." Sir Lepel had been led to suppose that he should find the works of Matthew Arnold in the hands of the railway porters of America, so widely were the blessings of education extended throughout the country. But he did not see one railway porter thus employed. In fact, he did not see one whose literary diversions took any higher form than the *Police Gazette*. This is far from reassuring, because it

proves that Mr. Arnold's present endeavor to diffuse sweetness and light among fifty millions of people is a much heavier task than was generally supposed. Sir Lepel promises us another article on the working of our political institutions. It is safe to say that he will not be taken too seriously.

—Some twenty-five years ago Henrik Ibsen began publishing the remarkable series of works (now numbering thirteen dramas and a volume of lyrical poems) which has gained for him the position of the foremost Scandinavian poet, and has called forth from his great but generous rival, Björnson, the admission that he possesses the "greatest dramatic power of the age." No Scandinavian poet is so widely read, owing not only to the burning earnestness and not infrequently biting satire of his writings, but partly, also, to the fact that, by adopting a peculiar orthography, his works are read with almost equal facility in Denmark, Norway, and Sweden. Each new work of Ibsen's has been received with harsh comments by the critical press of Scandinavia; but of late years, when the high praise of foreign critics has compelled his home assailants to at least tacitly admit the unqualified excellence of his literary style, criticism has been directed to the subject-matter of his works, and his last two dramas, "Et Dukkehjem" ("A Doll Home," of which a translation by Miss Lord, entitled "Nora," was published in London in 1882) and "Gengangere" ("Ghosts"), in which he sharply satirizes the relations of sex in married life, have given rise, in addition to the usual press notices, to a whirlwind of pamphlets, pro and con. The eminent Danish critic, Georg Brandes, has closely followed Ibsen's literary career for nearly twenty years, and during that time has not spared criticism, though the harsh tone of some of his earlier notices has latterly been softened. To the November number of *Nord und Süd* he has contributed a thorough and appreciative paper, containing a masterly analysis of the poet's life and works. He points out how the hard daily struggle of Ibsen's youth must have acted on his reserved, satirical nature as a challenge, and resulted in a certain suspiciousness in his dealings with mankind. The ground tone in Ibsen's works is one of deep dejection. A born idealist, who from the first thirsted after the beautiful in its highest form—ideal, spiritual beauty; a born rigorist, influenced also by his orthodox surroundings—determined to admire or acknowledge no other than moral beauty—he needed but a few repulses to cause him to draw back within himself with a distrust of the surrounding world in his heart. His first deep impression as a spiritual individuality was that of the rareness, or "never-ness"—as he in a bitter moment has added—of moral worth. It became an impulse with him to put to the proof whatever seemed real, and convince himself of its falsity. It became a passion with him to knock with his fingers upon what seemed like metal, and it afforded him a sort of painful satisfaction to hear the clang of its hollowness. Ibsen is a pessimist, but his pessimism is not of the kind which finds life itself an evil. He finds the world bad, but does not concern himself with the question as to whether life is a good. However sceptical he generally is, he does not really doubt the possibility of happiness. His pessimism is of a moral nature, grounded in the conviction that the ideal may become the real. It is, in brief, the pessimism of indignation; and his want of sympathy with much that is painful is due to his conviction of the educational power of suffering.

—Brandes emphasizes the fact that Ibsen's works represent with peculiar exactness his actual beliefs, and quotes statements made by Ibsen

in conversation, and extracts from his letters, as proofs. For example, in December, 1870, Ibsen wrote: "Liberty, equality, fraternity are no longer the same things that they were in the days of the blessed guillotine. This is what the politicians will not understand, and therefore I hate them. These men want only revolutions in the outer, in the political world. But all such are mere trifles; it is a revolution in men's spirits that is needed." "The strife for freedom," Ibsen writes, in 1871, "is nothing else than the constant, living appropriation of the idea of freedom. He who possesses freedom otherwise than as the thing struggled for, possesses it dead and spiritless." Ibsen knows himself only as an individual, and the only thing he really believes in and respects is personality. He stretches his belief in the sacredness of personality to the furthest. He thinks that an individual in order to develop the fruitful possibility within his being, first and foremost must stand free, stand alone; and he has therefore a wakeful eye to the dangers which association, friendship, and even marriage, in this regard, carry with them. Ibsen is convinced that in each man slumbers a warrior soul, an unconquerable might. Man shall become himself not through the will of higher powers, but through his own. In the third part of his article Brandes has carried his psychological analysis so far, as he puts it, "that the standpoint of Ibsen's mind can be seen in the light of the literary consciousness of the time." It is impossible to follow Brandes in this interesting part of his article and do justice (in a few words) to his keen analysis of the different groups of Ibsen's plays, as they deal with one or other of these four divisions of the ideas which Brandes thinks are especially active in the present—namely, such as deal with religion; such as have to do with the differences between two ages; such as relate to classes of society and their struggles; lastly, such as deal with the relations between sex. Naturally, Brandes, in closing, makes some remarks comparing Ibsen and his contemporary, Björnson. Ibsen, he claims, is a universal spirit, while Björnson, despite the cosmopolitanism of his poetical description, is national. The two have no other likeness than that which arises from having the same country, the same lifetime, and similarity in the use and development of poetic material. The article is accompanied by an etched portrait of Ibsen, which displays a face of noble and impressive appearance, but of almost repelling sternness, though this is somewhat modified by Brandes's word picture of the poet.

—It was recently announced in the German papers that all doubt concerning the authenticity of the much-discussed memoirs of Heine in M. Julia's possession would soon be set at rest by their publication in *Vom Fels zum Meer*. Instead of solving this question, however, the February number of that periodical contributes its share toward the complication by an article from Herr Gustav Karpeles, who, if anybody, ought to be able to speak with positiveness, but who, instead, is exasperatingly cautious and judicial. That there once existed at least three manuscript volumes of Heine's memoirs he considers as established beyond doubt; but whether, as would appear from the poet's utterances at various times, they were begun as early as 1823, partly recast later, in deference to his relatives, or consigned by him to the flames in a fit of dissatisfaction, and entirely rewritten in the last years of his life, when he lay in the "mattress tomb"—all these questions Herr Karpeles declares himself unable to answer. That Heine in his last illness was occupied with what he spoke of as his memoirs we know from his letters to

the *Mouche* and from Alfred Meissner, who himself saw the manuscript; but Karl Hillebrand, then Heine's secretary, seems to have been unaware of their existence, or at least is silent on the subject. On the whole, Herr Karpeles thinks it "probable" that whatever unpublished manuscripts Mathilde Heine sold to the poet's relatives had previously been copied, and that such a copy is at present in the hands of M. Julia. Neither Herr Karpeles nor any of the numerous writers who for many months have been busy with the memoirs has done more than whet public curiosity concerning a work which Heine himself, in a letter to his publisher, Campe, spoke of as "a great book, covering the entire history of our time, . . . with its most remarkable persons, . . . the result of my most precious and most painful studies," and in which, as Herr Karpeles temptingly points out, we should find depicted Goethe and Schlegel, Humboldt and Hegel, Meyerbeer and Mendelssohn, Rossini and Wagner, Lassalle and Marx, Thiers and Victor Hugo, George Sand and Musset.

—In every other respect the latest number of *Vom Fels zum Meer* will not disappoint its readers, who, if they do not receive the solid instruction which, for instance, the *Rundschau* offers, are better served in point of variety than those of any other monthly known to us, either in Germany or in this country. Note contains so miscellaneous a "miscellany," and but few surpass it in illustrations. In looking over the list of writers in this number we meet with but one widely known name, that of Anzengruber, the inimitable writer of peasant dramas; but the English reader who knows that great names in periodicals are not always a guarantee against disappointment will be inclined to admit that the economical habits of German publishers have their advantages, if not for writers at least for readers. We believe the practice of offering large sums for a mere name, regardless of the nature and quality of the contribution, is unknown among publishers of German periodicals, and hence none of the articles which appear in the best monthlies ever have the appearance of having been expressly "written up." Indeed, the *Rundschau*, to the obvious advantage of all concerned, not infrequently publishes articles which, strictly speaking, are not new, such as recently delivered scientific addresses. We observe that *Vom Fels zum Meer* in its latest number incidentally returns to a subject which, some months ago, it exhaustively discussed in an able article on "White Lies" (*Die Nöthüge*), and which has been still more fully treated in a recent work by Max Nordau on "The Conventional Lies of Civilized Man" (*Die Conventionalen Lügen der Culturmenschen*). Can it be that another era of German introspective philosophy is dawning? And has the ingenuousness of Bismarck really paved the way for another "Tugendbund"—for a return to the days of Fichte, the most uncompromising theoretical opponent of "white lies" among German moralists?

—The high-level meteorological observatory on the summit of the Ben Nevis, formally inaugurated in October last, was visited at Christmas-time by two members of the Governing Body of the institution, Professor G. Chrystal and Mr. John Murray, and a few particulars of the visit of inspection are given by Professor Chrystal in *Nature*. The routine of the observatory at present consists in hourly observations of the barometer, protected thermometers, dry and wet-bulb and maximum and minimum; wind-direction and pressure; rain, snow, sleet, or hail; mist, fog, or haze; clouds lower and upper; amount, species, and direction; sunshine-recorder, miscellaneous, thunder, lightning, ha-

los, aurora, meteors, etc. The thermometric instruments are attached to a ladder fixed in the snow, as the level of which rises and falls, they are moved from step to step, so as to keep them as nearly as possible at the regulation distance of four feet from the surface. A measurement from the top of the ladder to the surface gives the depth of the snow, which then varied from six to ten feet at different parts of the summit of the mountain. The observers have had for some time back to conduct a constant warfare with the rapidly accumulating snow. Not infrequently all hands had to be turned out to clear the doors and windows of the observatory, when it sometimes happened that the snow drifted in so rapidly that it was almost impossible to shut the door again. The device of the snow staircase overcomes the difficulty to a large extent. Professor Chrystal does not dwell at length on all the interesting casual observations recorded in the log kept by Mr. Omond, the chief observer. He alludes, however, to the frequently occurring phenomenon which Mr. Omond calls "glories." The shadow of the head or hands of the observer is frequently seen on the clouds in the valley to the northeast surrounded by a halo of color. The phenomenon appears to be akin to, or identical with, the mist phantom so well known under the name of the "Broken Spectre." The directors passed one night on the summit with the observers, and rose the next morning to see the sun rise—an extraordinary spectacle. Mr. Omond was congratulated on the weather he enjoyed on Ben Nevis, but it appeared that the treat was as great for him as for his guests. Since the beginning of his seclusion on November 11, there had been only three fine days: all the rest of the time the most he had seen was an occasional glimpse of a snow-covered mountain-peak through a hole in the mist.

KADESH-BARNEA.

Kadesh-barnea: its Importance and Probable Site, with the Story of a Hunt for it; including Studies of the Route of the Exodus and the Southern Boundary of the Holy Land. By H. Clay Trumbull, D.D., Editor of the *Sunday School Times*. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1884.

WHETHER one shares the opinion of the author or not, that "Kadesh-barnea was a site of importance forty centuries ago"—an allusion to the march of Chedorlaomer; that "it was more than once the scene of events on which, for the time, the history of the world was pivoting"; that a study of it in its varied associations involves a study of Jewish history from the days of Abraham "to the still vague and shadowy days of unfulfilled prophecy"—it is not difficult to agree with him that that famous locality, the pivotal point of the Jewish wanderings through the wilderness, as related in the Pentateuch, is not too small a subject for a large book, considering that its location has been for centuries, and to this day continues to be, a matter of almost passionately earnest discussion among eminent scholars.

Where was Kadesh barnea, or Kadesh (the Holy, or the Sanctuary), also designated as Eimishpat ("Fountain of Judgment"), Meribah (Strife), and perhaps also Rithmah (Broomgrass-spot)—around which the Israelites dwelled or wandered for thirty-seven or thirty-eight years; where Moses struck the rock and Miriam died; whence the Hebrews, on the return of the spies, started in their rash attempt to invade the Land of Promise from the south, and whence their leader sent messengers to the King of Edom, before moving toward the land east of the Jordan? What is certain is, that it was south of the

southern border of Palestine; that it adjoined the western extremity of Edom; that it lay in a wilderness of its own name, forming a part of the Wilderness of Zin, in the still more comprehensive Wilderness of Paran. But, how far south did Palestine extend? how far west, Edom? and how far north, Paran? Which known site would answer all the requirements of the numerous texts in which Kadesh-barnea is mentioned? We must restrict our review of identifications to those suggested by actual travellers.

Dr. Thomas Shaw, an English scholar, who travelled in the East in 1722, was inclined to locate Kadesh as far south as Kalaat Nakhl, in the centre of the Pilgrim's way leading from the north end of the Gulf of Suez to the north end of the Gulf of Akabah, about 100 miles north of Mt. Sinai. The learned Pococke, who began his Eastern journey some fifteen years later, was induced by vague reports to presume that Moses's rock of Meribah, in the Wilderness of Zin, was even much nearer to the Mount of the Law. Nearly seventy years passed before another European scholar trod the ground of the Hebrew wanderings. In 1807 Seetzen, the famous German explorer, came on a "flat, dry wady," on the northwest edge of the Azazimeh mountain tract, which was designated to him as Wady el-Kdeis. Seetzen attempted no identification of the place with Kadesh, in spite of the resemblance of the names and of the proximity of the locality, about fifty miles south of the site of Beer-sheba, to the border of Palestine. The Swiss traveller, Burckhardt, who, following Seetzen, explored the Arabah, the great depression—a continuation of the Jordanic Ghor—extending from near the Dead Sea to the Gulf of Akabah, and in 1812 discovered the ruins of the ancient rock-city, Petra, thought Kadesh-barnea, in its wider sense, was perhaps the Biblical name of that gorge. Léon de Laborde, who artistically supplemented Burckhardt's description of Petra, accepted the Swiss traveller's suggestion, and located the fountain of Kadesh near Jebel Jerafeh, west of Petra. Karl von Raumer located Kadesh in the northern portion of the Arabah, and not far from that tract it was sought by the American traveller, Stephens, in 1836, and immediately after by Lord Lindsay and G. H. von Schubert. Dr. Robinson, whose explorations of Scriptural lands so rapidly eclipsed those of almost all other travellers through the same regions, believed he discovered the waters of Meribah Kadesh in "Ain el-Weibeh, one of the most important watering places in all the great valley" of the Arabah, near its north end. "There are here, indeed, three fountains, issuing from the chalky rock of which the slope is composed. . . . The southernmost source consists of three small rills of limpid and good water, flowing out at the bottom of a small excavation in the rock. The soft chalky stone has crumbled away. . . ." There was nothing striking in the topographical reasons which could be adduced in favor of all these identifications, and, on the other hand, there are many points in the respective Biblical accounts which militate against them—and they are very forcibly urged by our author.

About a year after the appearance, in 1841, of Robinson's 'Biblical Researches,' John Rowlands, an English clergyman, who had repeatedly travelled through the Sinaitic Peninsula and the adjoining parts, made a trip from Hebron southward, in company with his friend Canon Williams, and under the guidance of a Bedouin sheikh, Selim. The travellers had reached, on the wall-rampart of the Smooth Mountain, about fifty miles south of Hebron, a point, as they considered on natural as well

as Biblical grounds, of the south frontier of Canaan. While they stood there, Sheikh Selim told them that at some distance beyond there was a place known as Kadis. It was exactly where they would have expected to find the site of Kadesh, but they were then unable to proceed to the place. Not long afterward Rowlands made another trip south—this time in company with Mr. Johns, the British Vice-Consul at Jerusalem—travelling by way of Gaza. Here he found two sheikhs of the Terabin Arabs—a tribe accustomed to roam through the eastern branches of the Wady el-Arish—who, after much inquiry, promised to guide him to Ayn Kadeis, in the Azazimeh Mountains. The journey thither was fruitful in identifications calculated to strengthen the expectation of reaching the site of Kadesh. And finally he stood, as he afterward described it in a letter to Canon Williams, "before the rock smitten by Moses, and gazed upon the lovely stream which still issues forth at the base of this rock." His excitement was indescribable as he

"paced backward and forward, examining the rock and the source of the stream; looking at the pretty little cascades which it forms as it descends into the channel of a rain torrent beneath. . . . The rock is a large single mass, or a small hill, of solid rock, a spur of the mountain to the north of it rising immediately above it. It is the only visible naked rock in the whole district. The stream, when it reaches the channel, turns westward, and, after running about three or four hundred yards, loses itself in the sand."

Rowlands had "not seen such a lovely sight anywhere else in the whole desert—such a copious and lovely stream." Everything seemed to answer perfectly to the description inferable from Scripture—the name, the location, the approaches, the roads, the wild surroundings, the rock, the water, and "the grand space for encampment which lies to the southwest of it—a large rectangular plain about nine by five or ten by six miles, and this opening to the west into the still more extensive plain of Paran."

The first scholar of eminence who supported Rowlands's view was Professor Tuch, of Leipzig, in 1847. Winer, in his *Biblical Realwörterbuch*, and Dr. Wilson, in 'The Lands of the Bible,' also adopted it. In 1849, however, Dr. Robinson came out in defence of his own identification of Kadesh, ridiculing the discovery of Ain Kadis and "the amusingly credulous character of the whole narrative" about it. In America and England, Robinson's dictum was sufficient to prejudice most Bible students against Rowlands and his discovery; but in Germany, such high authorities as Fries and Kurtz came forward with able dissertations in opposition to the views of the American traveller, and a host of other critics accepted or favored their conclusions—among them Karl Ritter and Knobel. In England, too, the same view, favorable to Rowlands's Ain Kadis, was eventually taken by Wilton, Palmer, Tristram, and others, and in this country by President Bartlett and Professor Lowrie. What prevented Rowlands's striking identification from being universally adopted, in preference to the rather arbitrary locations of Kadesh in the Arabah, was mainly the doubt expressed by Robinson and his supporters, which was strengthened by the repeated failure of travellers to find the locality described by the enthusiastic English divine. Dr. Stewart, Dr. Thomson, Abeken, Palmer, Bartlett, and others came near Seetzen's Wady el-Kdeis and Rowlands's Ain Kadis, but each of them was led away from, or otherwise missed, the rock and the stream the sight of which so enchanted the latter explorer. The reason of these failures is thus stated by our author:

"All by themselves, in the mountains bearing

their name, north of the region of the Teeyáhah and the Haywát, are the Azázimeh Bed'ween, 'one of the poorest and most degraded of Arab tribes'—the most Ishmaelitic of Ishmaelites. According to Palmer's testimony, 'they are superstitious, violent, and jealous of intrusion upon their domain, suspecting all strangers of sinister designs upon their lives and property.'

"Ayn Qadees, the site of Kadesh-barnea, is in the heart of the Azázimeh territory. The Azázimeh themselves will not guide travellers to it; nor will they give consent to the Teeyába to do so. Hence, although it is but a little distance east of the direct route from Sinai to Hebron, it has, for generations, been practically inaccessible to travellers. The ordinary Teeyába guides could not escort travellers thither; the superstitious Azázimeh would not. And, in this state of things, the Teeyába have doubtless been reluctant to admit to travellers that they knew of a place so near their route, while they were unable to go to it. Therefore it is that there came to be doubts of its very existence.

"Rowlands, indeed, was peculiarly favored in having Terábeen guides from Gaza, as he went in search of the long-sought site. The Terábeen are the only Arabs who seem on good terms with all the other tribes alike. Their immediate territory stretches from below Suez to Gaza. They . . . are on excellent terms with the jealous, superstitious, and quarrelsome Azázimeh. It was through their guidance that Rowlands was enabled to reach the jealously-guarded fountain of Kadees within the territory of the Azázimeh. But when he came out from that sacred enclosure, it seemed as if its entrance were not only immediately closed behind him, but actually lost to sight and knowledge."

It would take more space than we have to tell, after our author, by what use of wit and Yankee shrewdness, with what help from a noted dragoman, and in spite of what dangers, he, in the beginning of the spring of 1881, "on a casual tour, was enabled to overcome all these obstacles, and find his way to a sight shielded so jealously, and lied about so vigorously and variously, by successive generations of the typical Ishmaelites who surrounded it." For the particulars we must refer the reader to the part of the book which treats of the "Hunt." Mr. Trumbull entered the tract of the Azázimeh through Wady Kadis, "an extensive, hill-encircled, irregular-surfaced plain, several miles wide, and . . . certainly large enough to have furnished a camping ground for Kedorla'omer's army, or for all the host of Israel"—which means a great deal in the sense of the writer, whose faith in the verbal text of the Pentateuch (of course including its often assailed figures) is such as to make him exclaim with St. Paul, in regard to doubt and doubters: "God forbid: yea let God be found true, but every man a liar." Along the middle of the wady is an extensive water bed. Rich fields of wheat and barley covered a large portion of it. There were artificial ridges to retain and utilize the rainfall. Along the foot-hills of the ranges northward were found "cairns and circles of stone, which could hardly be other than remains of dwellings of a prehistoric age," and "signs on every hand of a large population there in former times." Our traveller then traversed a rough, stone-covered plain, still called Wady Kadis. It was distressingly waterless, with dazzling chalk hills in front—just such as the Wilderness of Kadesh must have been when the Israelites expected to die there with their cattle from thirst. But after nearly three hours of moving in the wady, on a sudden, sharp turn to the right, the eagerly-sought wells of Kadis were before his eyes.

"It was a marvellous sight! Out from the barren and desolate stretch of the burning desert-waste, we had come with magical suddenness into an oasis of verdure and beauty, unlooked for and hardly conceivable in such a region. A carpet of grass covered the ground. Fig trees, laden with fruit nearly ripe enough for eating, were along the shelter of the south-

ern hillside. Shrubs and flowers showed themselves in variety and profusion. Running water gurgled under the waving grass. We had seen nothing like it since leaving Wady Favran. . . .

"Standing out from the earth covered limestone hills at the northeastern sweep of this picturesque recess, was to be seen the 'large single mass, or a small hill, of solid rock,' which Rowlands looked at as the cliff (*Sela*) smitten by Moses. . . .

"A circular well, stoned up from the bottom with time-worn limestone blocks, was the first receptacle of the water. . . . A basin or pool of water larger than either of the wells, but not stoned up like them, was seemingly the principal watering place. It was a short distance southwesterly from the second well, and it looked as if it and the two wells might be supplied from the same subterranean source—the springs under the rock. . . . Another and yet larger pool, lower down the slope, was supplied with water by a stream which rippled and cascaded along its narrow bed from the upper pool; and yet beyond this, westward, the water gurgled away under the grass, as we had met it when we came in, and finally lost itself in the parching wady from which this oasis opened. The water itself was remarkably pure and sweet, unequalled by any we had found after leaving the Nile. . . .

"One thing was sure: all that Rowlands had said of this oasis was abundantly justified by the facts. . . . The sneers which other travellers had indulged in, over the creation of his heated fancies, were the result of their own lack of knowledge—and charity. . . ."

Is the problem now solved? Is it now as certain where Kadesh-barnea was as it is, say, where Duluth is? In answer to this question, we cannot go any further than to say that, agreeing, on examination, with Tueb, Fries, Kurtz, Knobel, and other authorities down to Mühlau and Volck in their just issued ninth edition of Gesenius's Dictionary, we deem Rowlands's identification of Kadesh, which Mr. Trumbull so weightily supports by his testimony and research, the strongest of all identifications known to us, and that the latter is quite modest when in the preface he expresses his "confident expectation that more good will come from the new discussions which this volume provokes than from the immediate conclusions of its own discussion of the main points at issue." Confirmations by new explorers, to whom the route has now been clearly pointed out, may soon dispel all objections based on the suspicion of "heated fancies," and secure to the American traveller lasting fame as one of the discoverers with Seetzen and Rowlands, or the rediscoverer, of the most interesting spot, next to Sinai, in the hoary traditions of the Hebrew migration from Egypt. Mr. Trumbull, who sees in those traditions not merely venerable legends but authentic sacred history, and believes, in spite of tremendous difficulties, in the unity and harmony of the "Mosaic" accounts, has devoted years of untiring research to the elucidation of all doubtful points connected with his main topic, ransacking libraries and piling up a prodigious amount of learned testimony, useful to scholars, though a portion of it be rubbish.

References to Bible texts, commentators, critics, and other authorities—some of them often repeated, and others quite superfluous—have, with the addition of copious indexes, swelled the volume to large proportions, but diminished its attractiveness for the common reader. On page 151 we find in the text, in support of a conjecture which supports itself, twenty-six "critical commentators and other Bible students" cited "for example"—the first seven being Adrichomius, Raleigh, Fürer, Quaresmius, Ainsworth, Drusius, and Pool!—and, in foot-notes, twenty-six references to books. The reference to Rabbi Solomon ben Isaac ("Rashi"), on the same page, shows that Mr. Trumbull has not always adhered to his determination "to cite directly from the authority quoted"; for Rashi does not express, at the place cited, the view

adopted by the twenty six, though his remark there well accords with it. Nor does Rashi, as referred to on page 189, say the words quoted—which express his meaning, however. Part of the contents of the first note on page 167 is not taken directly from the sources indicated, but from Neubauer's *Géographie du Talmud* (p. 11), as appears from the spellings "*Egeeb*," "*Yalkoot*," "*Siphre*" and "*Tosiftha*," and "*Schebuth*"—after Neubauer, and against Mr. Trumbull's strict rules of transliteration—who would write '*Egeeb*,' for instance—and from the erroneous extension of the term Babylonian Talmud to the Yalkut, caused by a misapprehension of the headings in the corresponding table of the '*Géographie*.' The reference to "*Thevenot's Reisen*" (p. 203) is evidently borrowed from a German book, which translated the Frenchman's title, '*Voyages*.' Reland is erroneously introduced (p. 201) as a geographer "of Germany." The few other slips which we hit upon in reading this interesting volume are more or less pardonable misprints. The worst of these, because again and again repeated, is "*Hor bagidat*" for *Hor bagidgad*. The map attached to the book is very handsomely executed.

Addison. By W. J. Courthope. Harper & Bros. 1884.

Addison lies under more obligations to happy fortune than any other literary Englishman of high rank. Halifax saved him from the Church and the probable oblivion of a seat on the bench of bishops, and sent him to cultivate his genius by foreign travel. When, on his return, he seemed sinking into poverty, the same warm patron introduced him to Godolphin's notice and procured for him the inspiration of "The Campaign" in the shape of a promise of office. Throughout life, as thus in its opening, friends, admirers, employments, themes, and applause were found for him; and if in his death he had not the crowning favor of a good biographer, the defect was more than made up in later years by the luck of having Macaulay for his eulogist. It is not so long since those eloquent pages of the great essay declaimed of Addison's elevation and purity, his genius, his inestimable influence on English morals, and his superiority to Steele—"poor Dick," as Addison called him, well knowing his heart to be the warmest and most forgiving that beat with fidelity to his own. At the time, Macaulay's rhetoric, force, and fame bore down the feeble protests that strove here and there against the injustice and untruthfulness of the funeral oration he had pronounced over his predecessor in the Great-Mogulship of the middle classes. He had not, however, erased the name of "Atticus"—ah, if Addison had only escaped Pope's satire as nobly as Swift's jests! "Atticus" is a perpetual interrogation mark affixed to Addison's repute; it cannot be passed by, it tempts curiosity, it leads on to investigation, and the inquiry issues at last in a book like Mr. Courthope's.

With all his sincere regard for his hero, and his regrets that there is nothing new to say, Mr. Courthope is a very candid biographer and frank critic. He strews the confessions of Addison's limitations along his pages instead of massing them, but they are all mentioned and defined. The early works, the translations, the "Account of the English Poets," the Latin verses, etc., are tenderly handled; the dust is hardly brushed off them. The opera, "*Rosamond*," is dismissed with the quotation from Dr. Burney that nothing more need be said of Addison's musical talent than that he was insensible to Handel and had a predilection for Clayton. The tragedy, "*Cato*," is bowed out on its merits, as owing its success solely to long-extinct party passions—a play in

which "all the actors seem to be oppressed with an uneasy consciousness that they have a character to sustain, and are not confident of coming up to what is expected of them." The comedy, "The Drummer," is declared "a standing proof of Addison's deficiency in dramatic genius." Even as a poet, though a rally is made in favor of "The Campaign," Addison is suspected by Mr. Courthope of an "uneasy consciousness that he was really inferior to such men as John Philips and Tickell."

There is nothing left for Addison (of course he made no mark in Parliament or in his administrative offices) but to be found preëminent as an essayist; and yet Mr. Courthope, while acknowledging this necessity, can do plain justice to Steele:

"There is scarcely a department of essay-writing developed in the *Spectator* which does not trace its origin to Steele. It is Steele who first ventures to raise his voice against the prevailing dramatic taste of the age on behalf of the superior morality and art of Shakespeare's plays. . . . Steele, too, it was who attacked, with all the vigor of which he was capable, the fashionable vice of gambling. . . . The practice of duelling, also, which had hitherto passed un-reproved, was censured by Steele. . . . The sketches of character studied from life, and the letters from fictitious correspondents, . . . appear roughly, but yet distinctly, drafted in the *Tatler*. Even the papers of literary criticism, afterward so fully elaborated by Addison, are anticipated by his friend, who may fairly claim the honor to have been the first to speak with adequate respect of the genius of Milton. In a word, whatever was perfected by Addison was begun by Steele."

After Macaulay's studied depreciation of the originator and manager of the periodical that determined the principal literary form of the eighteenth-century essayists, this is a very refreshing passage, nor does it overstate Addison's debt to the fag who idolized him from school-days. It is true that Addison was master of a literary manner usually finer than Steele's, though he had less heart, less earnestness, less tenderness, less sympathetic humanity and practical philanthropy. But the obligation to Steele should not be understood to imply too much. Undoubtedly Addison was far more effective in creating modern social public opinion by teaching wit to be decent and virtue to be amiable; by finding the true English mean between the Court and the Puritans; by making good taste, good sense, and good manners the characteristic ideal of the commercial and professional middle class. When all is said, that is the service he was really most instrumental in accomplishing; but it is by its nature a passing one. Sir Walter Scott did a very similar thing when he displaced the novels of the last age by his own; but the value of this revolution is felt only by the historical student. For posterity, Sir Walter's fame, like Addison's, rests on the actual worth of his work to the new age as it comes and goes. In Addison's case, while it is acknowledged that men ought not to cease to be mindful of the humble beginnings by which they rise, nor forget to be grateful to the pioneers of innocent literary amusement and cultivated criticism, nevertheless it cannot be blinked that the larger part of Addison's work is at present essentially commonplace. A new Dr. Johnson might hesitate to advise our youth to give their days and nights to Addison; in fact, our youth do not read, nor perhaps do they need to read, any of his sketches except the "Roger de Coverley" papers and the "Tory Foxhunter." The rest may be left, some to those who are still interested in sedan chairs and link-boys, some to those who are curious about Boileau's standard and the proprieties, some to those who do not yawn over homilies on cheerfulness, etc., etc.

Some shadow of the modern tedium induced by the standard essayists has fallen even on

Mr. Courthope, who has hardly taken decent pains to clothe the dry bones of facts and criticism with a garment of the life they once sustained. The biography is, in fact, dull. So it would seem that, despite his keen, cold observation, second only to Swift's among contemporaries, despite his refined taste, his merciful humor, his adroitness and charm of style, his reconciling and humanizing influence over his age, Addison (not to speak it profanely), odorous of all his virtues, mounts *ad astra*—to the upper shelves. There he finds all his little senate "gone before," and with them can take his ease in his inn. A highly honorable, highly respectable, highly comfortable place he has, as in his earthly days at Button's. To posterity, as even to those friends who sunned themselves in his presence when his frigidity was thawed by wine, he seems a distant, chilly, isolated man, a spectator standing outside and observing the surfaces of life in the crowd; slightly grandiose, perhaps, but irreproachable in all forms, whether of courtesy or composition; the most affable if not the most accessible of friends; the favorite of fortune, and sometimes her dupe (as in the noisy Cato business); in his heart more stoic than Christian, with that pride in his dignity which tempted him to summon a rakish youth to his bedside to see how he "could die." What a pity it is that one cannot remember so fine a figure without recollecting also that there was the crooked papist who wrote "Atticus," and the honest Dick whose life, he humbly said, was "at best but pardonable." Such is the portrait, at least as Mr. Courthope brings out its lines, and it is the same picture painted by contemporaries.

Maria Edgeworth. By Helen Zimmern. [Famous Women Series.] Boston: Roberts Brothers.

MRS. OLIVER'S recent "Life of Maria Edgeworth" (see *Nation*, No. 928) makes this volume of the "Famous Women Series" not so fresh and striking as its predecessors, but it is not unlikely that many persons will gain from it a more distinct idea of Maria Edgeworth. Mrs. Oliver had accumulated an abundance of anecdote and detail, which only a most skilful hand could have combined without confusing the outlines of the central figure. If her book left something to be desired in the absence of critical appreciation, the present volume only partly supplies the lack. Miss Edgeworth was not an author about whom a critic nowadays could say brilliant things; but that there is something more to be said of her than is to be found in either of these biographies, is proved by those gracious pages in the "Book of Sibyls" that have embodied, as never before, the charm both of her books and of herself.

To Miss Edgeworth's father Helen Zimmern is unjust. He is measured by the standards of to-day, with a very scanty knowledge of his time and his surroundings. It is the difficulty of biographies made to order, that the writer rarely has the time, even when the desire is strongest, to study the subject from all sides, as one does who chooses to write a life only from personal motives. It is often said, "If Miss Edgeworth's father had let her alone," with an implied inference that free work would have been better work. On the contrary, it seems to us doubtful if she would have succeeded without her father's suggestion and training. Her work, even with all its great excellence, was not of the sort that compels its own doing.

But, all this aside, the book is heartily welcome, if only for the sake of the long extracts from the volume of letters and journals privately printed by the last Mrs. Edgeworth. The most significant, the most impressive, at

this moment, are from the letters of fifty-three years ago, of which one might think the ink scarcely dry. The first explains why "Helen" is not an Irish story:

"It is impossible to draw Ireland as she now is in a book of fiction; realities are too strong, party passions too violent, to bear to see or care to look at their faces in the looking-glass. The people would only break the glass and curse the fool who held the mirror up to nature—distorted nature, in a fever. We are in too perilous a case to laugh; humor would be out of season—worse than bad taste."

In the second the italics are hers:

"It is scarcely possible that this country can now be tranquilized without military force to reëstablish law; the people *must* be made to obey the laws, or they cannot be ruled after any concessions. Nor would the mob be able to rule if they got all they desire; they would only tear each other to pieces, and die *drunk or famish* sober. The misfortune of this country has been that England has always yielded to *clamor* what should have been granted to justice."

Samuel Sharpe, Egyptologist and Translator of the Bible. By P. W. Clayden. London: Kegan Paul, Trench & Co. 1883. Pp. iv.-320.

SAMUEL SHARPE'S long life of more than eighty-two years (1799-1881) was an uncommonly active and useful one. He is one of the most pleasing examples of that tolerably large class of Englishmen who, while mainly engaged in commerce or politics, devote their leisure hours to questions of science and literature. These men do not usually rise above the grade of amateurs—they rarely make important additions to the world's literary and scientific stores—but they make their own lives healthier and happier, and, by popularizing knowledge, cultivate the general community, and render the scholar's work easier. Mr. Sharpe was in a banking house from his sixteenth to his sixty-second year, yet he found time to study the Egyptian language, religion, and history, the languages of the Bible, and the current political, economical, and religious questions of his day, and to write well on all these subjects. He was descended on the mother's side from a long line of Dissenters, who naturally espoused the side of the Whigs. When the "heroic age of Liberalism" in politics began, he was just entering on his early manhood: there was the repeal of the Test and Corporation Acts in 1827, Catholic Emancipation in 1829, the Reform Bill in 1832, the abolition of slavery in the West Indies in 1834, the reform of the Corporations in 1835, and the Dissenters' Marriage Act in 1836. He threw himself into these reforms with the zeal of a man who had an immediate personal interest in them; thus, as only baptisms and not births were registered by the parish, and as he, being a Nonconformist, objected to having his children baptized at church, the four first of them were entered only in the informal non-parochial registers which the Dissenters kept for themselves, and which were finally legalized and collected under the new Registration Act of 1836. To the end of his life he continued to enter with keen zest into all political questions, and so late as 1872 republished an older magazine article in which he showed that the London Mansion House was built from fines unjustly levied on Dissenters. Born at a time when the terrors of the French Revolution and the menaces of Napoleon had been made the occasion of repressing all liberal movements in England, he lived to see almost all the restrictions of his youth removed, and Nonconformists invested with reasonable freedom in religion as well as in civil life. He did not confine himself to political subjects proper, but wrote articles for the *Inquirer* newspaper in favor of free trade, during the excitement and disorders of Sir Robert Peel's administration in 1841 and

1842, in favor of large Government grants for education, and in advocacy of the disestablishment of the national Church. He seems to have taken very sensible views of all these questions.

He showed equal interest in religious matters. Before his marriage he had been led, by the study of the New Testament, to sever his connection with the Established Church, and attach himself to a Unitarian chapel. "It was," says he, "upon consideration of the odium and legal disabilities that yet remained attached to a denial of the Trinity, that I made up my mind that it was a duty to bear my share of the burden." After this he spent much time and money in support of Unitarianism and of unsectarian education. He wrote books and gave them away, contributed articles to periodical papers, lectured on Biblical subjects, established chapels, and gave a good deal of money (in all about £20,000) to University College. It was while he was a member of the Council of this College, in 1866, that James Martineau, who had been recommended by the Senate of Professors as the most suitable man for the vacant chair of Mental Philosophy and Logic, was rejected by the Council on account of his theological opinions, and Professor De Morgan resigned his professorship "because the College had thus ignored and contradicted its fundamental principle of absolute neutrality in matters of theological belief." Sharpe's religion was of a positive and practical kind; he wrote vigorously against agnostic views, and did what he could to promote religious warmth and zeal among Unitarians, and to maintain a decided Christian character in the teaching of the ministers and the lives of the laity. His own religious life was a beautifully rounded one, vigorous and precise and earnest, but without narrowness or bitterness.

His Egyptian studies were truly remarkable. That a man who had left school at sixteen, and was occupied all day with business affairs, should, when he was over thirty, take up so difficult a subject as Egyptology, master its literature, and make useful contributions to the infant science in the shape of a number of books, is a sufficiently rare phenomenon to excite our wonder. At that time (about 1830) Young and Champollion had not been long dead, Lepsius had only begun his work, and Wilkinson had just published his first books on the hieroglyphics. Sharpe, who had an essentially practical, productive mind, studied Young, Champollion, Wilkinson, and Salt, learned Coptic by means of Tattam's lexicon, got the fragments of Manetho from Cory and other sources, and then wrote his 'Early History of Egypt,' which was published in 1836, and was the means of introducing him to Cullamore, Cory, Bonomi, and Lepsius. The next year he published a lithographed volume of 'Egyptian Inscriptions' and the 'Rudiments of a Vocabulary of Egyptian Hieroglyphics,' which were soon followed by 'Egypt under the Ptolemies.' This last has proved to be a work of permanent value. His hieroglyphic studies, which embraced not only history, but philological, astronomical, chronological, and theological questions, were no doubt useful in their day, but have long since been left behind by the advancing science; his book on the Ptolemies, giving a clear, well-written narrative of events, is still about the best in English on the subject. He made a fair reputation for himself among Egyptologists, and, with his strong common sense and independence of thought, would no doubt, if he had had better early training and more time at his disposal, have made an eminent scholar. His patience and industry were immense; he shrank from no labor necessary to gain his ends, and he had the habit of going, wherever it was possible, to primary sources of information.

He was not satisfied with studying Egyptian, but turned his attention to the Bible, and made a new version of the New Testament, after Griesbach's text, in 1840, and one of the Old Testament in 1865, learning Hebrew for this purpose. He was a pioneer in the work of revising the translation of the Bible; he began his New Testament before any decided popular interest had been manifested in the subject, and, according to his statement, it was he who suggested (in 1855) to Mr. James Heywood the motion in the House of Commons which resulted in the Revised Version of the Old and New Testaments. Sharpe's translations seem to have been widely circulated among Dissenters, and to have helped to prepare the way for the new official revision. In addition to this, he wrote a volume of 'Historic Notes,' consisting of critical remarks on the Biblical books, and a 'History of the Hebrew Nation and Literature,' besides a study of the Sinaitic inscriptions, and 'The Journeys and Epistles of the Apostle Paul'—all (except, perhaps, the Sinaitic inscriptions) respectable works.

Add to this array of books the numerous affairs which occupied him outside of his banking business, and we have the picture of a life well filled up with wholesome, useful work—a proof of what can be done by a business man, and an encouragement to men to do what they can. A large class of men of this stamp would give a healthier tone to society. Mr. Clayden has made an uncommonly interesting biography. Sharpe was concerned in important affairs, and was brought into connection with some noteworthy persons. There was his uncle, Samuel Rogers, the banker-poet; Bonomi, Crabb Robinson, Bishop Colenso, Chunder Sen, Miss Lucy Aikin, Alexander Dyce, Samuel Birch, besides others less known, about whom there is a good deal of pleasant talk. Samuel Sharpe's brothers were men of distinction: Sutton was Queen's Counsel, and highly esteemed enough to be placed on the Commission of three appointed to prepare new rules and regulations for the Chancellor's Court; Henry devoted himself heart and soul, for thirty years, to the education and improvement of the young workmen of the town of Hampstead; William was a solicitor and Liberal politician; Daniel's geological and palaeontological papers earned him a high place in that department of science in England. And not the least striking person in the household is the oldest sister, Catharine, who gave her whole life to rearing her younger brothers and sisters. It was a sturdy, capable family, worthy of its descent from Philip and Matthew Henry, and Mr. Clayden has given an excellent picture of the family and of the times.

Dictionary of Quotations from English and American Poets. Based upon Bohn's edition. Revised, corrected, and enlarged. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.

THE anonymous editor of this issue does not indicate what (if any) additions he has made to the English portion besides the 1,300 quotations from American poets. The list of these poets is fairly representative, but, judged by the minor names included in it, does not betray a nice critical sense in the compiler. Longfellow furnishes one in seven (177) of the 1,300; Bryant, just half as many (89); Whittier, one in twenty-four (52); Emerson, one in thirty-three (37). It would not, perhaps, occur spontaneously to most people that the name next in order after these four should be that of Mr. Richard H. Stoddard, but so it is. No fewer than 34 passages have been derived from him; from Lowell, only 29. This seems all the more disproportionate when we find Keats credited with but 21, Coleridge and

Wordsworth with but 15 each, Browning with 45, and Tennyson with 61. There would, in short, be no accounting for tastes in this instance if Mr. Stoddard had not supplied the preface to the present edition, and given it as his honest opinion that the maker of the Dictionary (presumably the last maker) has "triumphed over the multitude of difficulties which must have beset the making of it."

The English poets whose writings have been most freely used are, in the order named, Shakspeare, Byron, Pope, and, pretty equally, Butler, Cowper, Milton, and Young. So voluminous a writer as Swinburne is wholly disregarded, as is also his superior in every way for the purposes of this collection, Clough. One feels this last omission particularly under the headings "Sea" and "Ocean," where, by the way, Mr. Stoddard does duty five times, four of the quotations being from one piece. But Wordsworth, too, should have been quoted here—if not otherwise, from the opening stanzas of his "Pelee Castle":

"Thy form was sleeping on a glassy sea.

It trembled, but it never passed away."

And we could have spared one of Mr. Stoddard's gems for the familiar lines from the "Ancient Mariner"—

"As idle as a painted ship
Upon a painted ocean."

What is, indeed, striking in this anthology is the failure to quote from poems which leap to the thought as soon as the catchword is uttered. "Good-night," for example, suggests instantly Shelley and Mrs. Barbauld, but we find here neither

nor "Good-night! ah, no! the hour is ill,"

nor "Say not Good-night; but in some brighter clime."

"Warrior" as instantly recalls Wordsworth's "Happy Warrior," or Tennyson's

"Rome they brought her warrior dead";

but the compiler ignores both. So, under "Duty," we look in vain for a sample of the great ode which bears that title; under "Love," for

"All thoughts, all passions, all delights,"

which is also plainly labelled; under "Mother," for something from Cowper's lines on his mother's picture; under "Shipping," for

"With ships the sea was sprinkled far and nigh";

under "Fortune," for

"Turn, Fortune, turn thy wheel."

Less distinctly, yet not obscurely indicated, is Milton's first sonnet to Cyriac Skinner, for the heading "Recreation," or for "Mirth" (where Milton is otherwise borrowed from). Under "War" or "Peace," Longfellow's "Arsenal at Springfield" might have been expected to prove serviceable; under "Parting," Coleridge's

"They parted—ne'er to meet again,"

with its fine imagery (from "Christabel").

The index measurably supplies the defects of the classification of these quotations; but it is surely symptomatic that one must look under the prosaic "Flags" for either "banner" or "standard," which do not occur even as cross-references. Some inconsistencies, like the headings "Father" and "Mother" without "Brother" or "Sister," seem singular because of fine opportunities thrown away. Thus, there is "Pain" but no "Suffering," though Gray's "Eton College" stood ready with

"To each his sufferings: all are men";

and there is "Misery" but no "Distress," though the latter would have made available the priceless line of Wordsworth's—

"A deep distress hath humanized my soul."

Statique des Civilisations. Par Paul Mougelle, ancien élève de l'Ecole Polytechnique. Paris: Ernest Leroux. 1883. 8vo, pp. 438.

THIS book consists chiefly of a very complacent and naïve attempt to bring the laws of the progress of civilization under the domain of one or two simple mathematical formulas. The author is impressed with the tendency of civilization to move away from the equator; and his peculiar logic—not so peculiar but that one finds something very like it in favor nowadays among men who are much more prominent in the semi-scientific world—enables him to arrive, after a considerable amount of pleasant and interesting writing, but very little hard thinking, at a formula which leaves nothing to be desired on the score of compactness and simplicity. There is a large and perhaps somewhat influential class of writers who use the terms of modern science—conservation of force, evolution, adaptation, and so forth—as though they were conjuring words, by the use of which the most intricate problems of nature and man could be instantaneously solved. It is in this spirit that a writer of some note in a learned English journal quietly assumes as the basis of a long article on idiosyncrasy, that it is impossible, nay, “unthinkable,” that the mental equipment of a child should be superior to that of his parents. Writers of this sort, and their readers, might do well to see how amusingly easy it is, by an exaggerated use of such methods, and with the aid of a little mathematical jargon, to solve the darkest problems. M. Mougelle has only to adduce one or two elementary laws of mechanics and to take a little liberty with his mathematics, in order to find the great formula of his science, viz.: that the intensity of civilization at any time is proportional to the square of the cosine of the latitude multiplied by a power of its sine. The power to which the sine appears increases directly as the time, and thus it is that the highest civilization is found further and further from the equator with the advancing ages. It is hardly necessary to add that the deductions from this formula accord precisely with the facts of history, as M. Mougelle elaborately shows.

While this is the climax of the author's work, it occupies but a comparatively small part of the book, which is filled with a great variety of matters, some interesting, many amusing, but all easy. Perhaps the most striking example of this last all-pervading quality is the facility with which one can accurately compare the merits of two civilizations—contemporaneous or ages apart, contiguous or wide as the poles asunder. The magnitude of the greatest city is an infallible test; and fortunate it is for M.

Mougelle that such is the case, when he comes to compare France and Germany: “La comparaison des agglomérations urbaines dans les deux pays montre péremptoirement que la civilisation allemande est moins avancée que la nôtre: la population de Paris est presque double de celle de Berlin.” There are plenty of things in the book almost as refreshing as this, especially some of the “science”; but one is struck by the excellence of the style, which would probably seldom accompany such matter in any book not written by a Frenchman.

The Amphitheatres of Ancient Rome. By Clara S. Wells. Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co.

THIS well-intentioned book contains a very complete résumé of the historical record and accumulated tradition concerning the Coliseum, with a chapter giving some information as to the similar buildings of ancient Rome. The authoress deserves credit for diligence in collecting her data, but one so fond of drawing morals from statements of fact as she is, should have drawn one from the architecture of the Romans, viz.: that no matter what the character of the building-stone they used, the cement always proved the strongest part of their walls, while the cementing in her work is the weakest. This is said without prejudice to any criticism on the plan of her structure, which is very disorderly.

The following is a good example of the filling in, and one of which the authoress is probably proud:

“May we not learn an important lesson from the durability of the materials used in not only this construction but in most of the Roman work? It shows us the almost indestructibility of thorough labor, which need not necessarily be slow, since in fourteen years the great building was erected, but which always demands devotion, energy, strength, and perseverance.

“And as, with these qualities, buildings may be put together defying the destructiveness of time, and which, though changed in form and place, still rest firm and unbroken, so spiritual and intellectual labor, performed under similar conditions of earnestness and activity, may also enter, unlabelled and unperceived, into the foundation and framework of social and religious beliefs, for century after century, even passing from one nation to another! Firm as are still the blocks of the Coliseum, the more intellectual ones, hewn by the poets and writers of the same period, have served to form by themselves a classical edifice, studied and extolled in all nations, and also, as stolen fragments, have entered into the compositions of vast multitudes of later literary men. And as the great amphitheatre was cemented with the tears of slaves and captive Jews, under the direction, if it be true, of a Christian architect, so, from the labor of the most despised classes, often greatest results are achieved. Time, the great Reverser of social classes, has brought to highest honor the then hated Christian sect, has preserved, in marvellous intactness and increase, the captive Jewish Race, but their then masters,

the proud Romans, have disappeared, as a grand, unique class, dispersed among and intermingled with other nations, most of whom have been in turn their conquerors.”

The authoress has the organ of utilitarianism fully developed, and her notion of the use to which the Coliseum may be put is, if not practical, at least humorous, though not intended to be so:

“I would suggest that the spirit of this century, being especially one of humanity and science as compared with preceding epochs, might be well expressed if the Coliseum—thoroughly drained and its splendid water-power utilized in the form of fountains, etc.—should be taken possession of by the Roman Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals, and, under their direction, the whole be made, with the adjoining grounds, into zoological and aquarial gardens.

“The neighboring Botanical Garden forming a similar attraction, from this part of the city might emanate the most aesthetic and progressive ideas concerning the animal and vegetable world, for the community's best good. Nor would it be unfitting that walls which had resounded with the howling and cries of suffering beasts, as well as with the groans of human beings, should witness the happier existence of animals, and even a higher development of their capacities, by means of judicious training, until, in the Coliseum at last might be shadowed forth that promised ‘Golden Age,’ when the ‘lion shall lie down with the lamb, and a little child shall lead them.’”

The publisher has done his duty by the essay.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

- A Latter-Day Saint. American Novel Series. No. 1. Henry Holt & Co. \$1.
 Arthur, W. On the Difference between Physical and Moral Law. Fernley Lecture of 1883. Harper & Brothers.
 Bascom, J. The Words of Christ as Principles of Personal and Social Growth. G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$1.75.
 Renton, W. Bishopscot: a Romance of the Last Generation. London: Chapman & Hall.
 Βιζύνης, Γ. Μ. Ἀντίδες Αἰῶνι ; Συλλογὴ ποιημάτων. London: Triübner.
 Courthope, W. J. Joseph Addison. English Men of Letters Series. Harper & Brothers. 75 cents.
 Davis, G. L. Samuel Davis, of Oxford, Mass., and Joseph Davis, of Dudley, Mass., and their Descendants. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. \$4.
 Deming, C. By-Ways of Nature and Life. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
 Diane Coryval. No-Name Series. Boston: Roberts Brothers. \$1.
 Drake, S. A. A Book of New England Legends and Folk-Lore. Boston: Roberts Brothers.
 Du Boisgobey, F. Was it a Murder? or, Who is the Heir? Translated from the French. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co. \$1.
 Estadística Comercial de la República de Chile, correspondiente al año de 1882. Valparaíso: G. Helfmann.
 Fenn, F. H. One Hundred Choice Pieces for Reading and Speaking. John E. Potter & Co. 25 cents.
 Fenzi, S. Translations into English Verse from Some of the Italian Poets. Florence.
 Fletcher, Susan W. Twelve Months in an English Prison. Boston: Lee & Shepard. \$1.50.
 Gerhardt, W. P. Hints on the Drainage and Sewerage of Dwellings. W. T. Comstock.
 Gladden, Rev. W. Things New and Old in Discourses of Christian Truth and Life. Columbus, O.: A. H. Smythe.
 Habberton, J. George Washington. Lives of American Worthies. Henry Holt & Co. \$1.25.
 Harrison, G. L. Legislation on Insanity: a Collection of all the Lunacy Laws of the States and Territories of the United States. Philadelphia: Privately printed.
 Hawthorne, J. Beatrix Randolph. A Story. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
 Heard, F. F. Precedents of Equity Pleadings. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

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